# An Introduction to Dynamical Systems and Fractals: 1 

David Broomhead<br>The School of Mathematics and<br>Centre for Interdisciplinary Computational<br>and Dynamical Analysis (CICADA),<br>The University of Manchester.

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## A Simple Digital Channel

- First order system driven by a clocked random pulse sequence:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{d y}{d t}=-\gamma y+\xi(t) \\
\xi(t)=\sum_{p} a_{p} g(t-p \tau)
\end{gathered}
$$



- $\left\{a_{p}\right\} \in\{0,1\}^{\mathbb{Z}^{+}}$are the input symbols
- $g$ is supported on $(0, \tau)$.
- Symbols input at constant rate, $\tau^{-1}$.
- In the examples, $g$ is a raised cosine.
- In the numerical example $\gamma \tau=\log 3$


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- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
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- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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- Overview
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thirds Cantor set
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dimension
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- A Simple Digital Channel - Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
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A Simple Digital Channel - Sampling the Output

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- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
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- A Simple Digital Channe
- Sampling the Output

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- A Simple Digital Channe
- Sampling the Output

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## Overview

- A Simple Digital Channe
- Sampling the Output


## Overview

- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output

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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output

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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output

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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output

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- Non-hyperbolic IFSs
- Digital forcing/controlling of an inverted pendulum


## Cantor's (rather small) set

- Remove from the closed unit interval $I_{0}=[0,1]$ its open middle third $(1 / 3,2 / 3)$ to leave $I_{1}=[0,1 / 3] \cup[2 / 3,1]$
- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Summary
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- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Summary
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- Self-similarity
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- Hausdorff dimension
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
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- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
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- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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- Dimension of self-similar sets
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
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- Self-similarity
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- This implies that $l(C) \leq(2 / 3)^{j}$ for any $j \in \mathbb{N}$


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Self-similarity
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- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Self-similarity
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- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
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- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Self-similarity of $C$
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- Box-counting dimension
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
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- Hausdorff dimension
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- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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- For example it contains $1 / 4=. \overline{02}_{3}$


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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- Sampling the Output
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- Cantor's (rather small) set
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- Sampling the Output
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- Sampling the Output
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- But $C \subset[0,1]$, so its cardinality cannot exceed that of $[0,1]$


## Cantor's (perfect) set

- So far we have found only properties that $C$ shares with the irrational numbers in the unit interval
- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set - Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
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- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
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- But $C$ is the compliment of an open set (the union of the removed open intervals) and so, unlike the irrationals, $C$ is a closed set.


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
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- But $C$ is the compliment of an open set (the union of the removed open intervals) and so, unlike the irrationals, $C$ is a closed set.
- It is, in fact a perfect set (every point is an accumulation point and every accumulation point lies within the set)


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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
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- It is, in fact a perfect set (every point is an accumulation point and every accumulation point lies within the set)
- The second part of this definition follows because $C$ is closed. To prove the first part we have to show that for any $x \in C$ and for every $\epsilon>0$ there is at least one other point of $C$ which lies within the $\epsilon$-neighbourhood of $x$.


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Choose an arbitrary $x=. a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} \cdots 3 \in C$, and for any $\epsilon>0$ choose $k$ so that $3^{-k}<\epsilon / 2$.


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A Simple Digital Channel
Sampling the Output
Overview

- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set - Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
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- Choose an arbitrary $x=. a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} \ldots 3 \in C$, and for any $\epsilon>0$ choose $k$ so that $3^{-k}<\epsilon / 2$.
- A switch $2 \leftrightarrow 0$ in the $k$ th digit of $x$ gives $y=x \pm 2 \cdot 3^{-k}$. By construction, $y \in C$ and is in the $\epsilon$-neighbourhood of $x$.


## Cantor's (nowhere dense) set

- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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- If we take the closure of the rational numbers in the unit interval (the intersection of all closed sets which contain the set) we get the whole unit interval. Equivalently, any irrational number can be approximated by a sequence of rational numbers.


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
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- Because $C$ is perfect it must equal its closure, therefore if it is dense in any open sub-interval of $[0,1]$ it must contain the sub-interval


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Because $C$ is perfect it must equal its closure, therefore if it is dense in any open sub-interval of $[0,1]$ it must contain the sub-interval
- But $C$ contains no intervals. Between any two points in $C$ there must be a point that requires a 1 somewhere in its base 3 representation.


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Because $C$ is perfect it must equal its closure, therefore if it is dense in any open sub-interval of $[0,1]$ it must contain the sub-interval
- But $C$ contains no intervals. Between any two points in $C$ there must be a point that requires a 1 somewhere in its base 3 representation.
- Thus $C$ is nowhere dense in $[0,1]$.


## Summary

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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- In the sense of measure, the Cantor set is very small since it has zero length.
- Its cardinality is, however, that of the unit interval.
- It is an example of a perfect set-a topological property
- And yet, topologically, it is sparse in the sense that it is a nowhere dense subset of the unit interval.
- Let's consider now what makes the Cantor set a basic example in fractal geometry.


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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- The dimension of $C$
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
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- Self-similarity of $C$
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- A Simple Digital Channe
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
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- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
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- Box-counting dimension
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
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S_{2}(x)=x / 3+2 / 3
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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of C
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
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- Properties of the
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A Simple Digital Channe

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of C
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of C
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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- This property is known as self-similarity
$\rightarrow C$ is the union of two similar copies of itself.


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$


## - Self-similarity

- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion
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\|S(x)-S(y)\|=c\|x-y\| \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
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- That is, similarities transform sets into geometrically similar sets
- Now consider a collection of similarities:
$\left\{S_{i} \mid i=1, \ldots, N\right\}$ where each has $0<c_{i}<1$
- A set $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ which satisfies:

$$
K=\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} S_{i}(K)
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is said to be self-similar.

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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$


## - Self-similarity

- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
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- Many examples—like the middle thirds Cantor set-are fractal sets, having struc-
 ture on arbitrary small scales


## Hausdorff measure

- Write $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$. A $\delta$-cover of $K$ is a countable set of sets $\left\{U_{i}\left|0<\left|U_{i}\right| \leq \delta\right\}\right.$ such that $K \subset \bigcup_{i} U_{i}$. Here $|U|$ is the diameter of $U$
- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
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- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
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- For $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $s>0$, define for any $\delta>0$

$$
\mathcal{H}_{\delta}^{s}(K)=\inf \left\{\sum_{i}\left|U_{i}\right|^{s} \mid\left\{U_{i}\right\} \text { is a } \delta \text {-cover of } K\right\}
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
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- Take the limit:

$$
\mathcal{H}^{s}(K)=\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0} \mathcal{H}_{\delta}^{s}(K)
$$

- Limit exists, but is often either 0 or $\infty . \mathcal{H}^{s}(K)$ is the $s$-dimensional Hausdorff measure of $K$.


## Hausdorff measure

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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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- Dimension of self-similar sets
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- For $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $s>0$, define for any $\delta>0$

$$
\mathcal{H}_{\delta}^{s}(K)=\inf \left\{\sum_{i}\left|U_{i}\right|^{s} \mid\left\{U_{i}\right\} \text { is a } \delta \text {-cover of } K\right\}
$$

- Take the limit:

$$
\mathcal{H}^{s}(K)=\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0} \mathcal{H}_{\delta}^{s}(K)
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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- $\mathcal{H}^{2}(K)$ is finite
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## Hausdorff dimension

- If $\left\{U_{i}\right\}$ is a $\delta$-cover of $K$, then if $t>s,\left(\left|U_{i}\right| / \delta\right)^{t} \leq\left(\left|U_{i}\right| / \delta\right)^{s}$ so that
- A Simple Digital Channe
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure - Hausdorff dimension - Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion

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\sum_{i}\left|U_{i}\right|^{t} \leq \delta^{t-s} \sum_{i}\left|U_{i}\right|^{s}
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure - Hausdorff dimension - Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion

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- Letting $\delta \rightarrow 0$, if $\mathcal{H}^{s}(K)<\infty$ then $\mathcal{H}^{t}(K)=0$ for $t>s$.
- Thus, there is a special value of $s$ at which $\mathcal{H}^{s}(K)$ jumps from $\infty$ to 0 . This is the Hausdorff dimension, written $\operatorname{dim}_{H}(K)$
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- Thus, there is a special value of $s$ at which $\mathcal{H}^{s}(K)$ jumps from $\infty$ to 0 . This is the Hausdorff dimension, written $\operatorname{dim}_{H}(K)$
- The value of $\mathcal{H}^{s}(K)$ when $s=\operatorname{dim}_{H}(K)$ may be 0 or $\infty$ or something in between.


## Properties of the Hausdorff dimension

Open sets: $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is open then $\operatorname{dim}_{H}(K)=n$

- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion


## Properties of the Hausdorff dimension

- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion

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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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## Properties of the Hausdorff dimension

- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion

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## Properties of the Hausdorff dimension

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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## Properties of the Hausdorff dimension

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff

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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff

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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
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- The upper and lower box-counting dimensions of $K$ are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(K)=\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0} \sup \frac{\log N_{\delta}(K)}{-\log \delta} \\
& \underline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(K)=\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0} \inf \frac{\log N_{\delta}(K)}{-\log \delta}
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary

Self-similarity of $C$

- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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- If these are equal, the box-counting dimension of $K$ is:

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{B}(K)=\lim _{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log N_{\delta}(K)}{-\log \delta}
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## Properties of the box-counting dimension

Smooth sets: If $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a smooth m-dimensional submanifold then $\operatorname{dim}_{B}(K)=m$

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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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- The dimension of $C$
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion

Monotonicity: Both $\operatorname{dim}_{B}(F)$ and $\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(F)$ are monotonic.
Finite stability: $\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}$-but not $\operatorname{dim}_{B}$ —is finitely stable

$$
\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(F \cup K)=\max \left\{\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(F), \overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(K)\right\}
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension - Properties of the box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion

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Countable sets: If $K$ is countable then it is possible that $\operatorname{dim}_{B}(K) \neq 0$ because both the upper and lower box-counting dimensions are unchanged by taking the closure of the set.

## Properties of the box-counting dimension

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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension - Properties of the box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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Finite stability: $\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}$-but not $\operatorname{dim}_{B}$ —is finitely stable

$$
\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(F \cup K)=\max \left\{\overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(F), \overline{\operatorname{dim}_{B}}(K)\right\}
$$

Countable sets: If $K$ is countable then it is possible that $\operatorname{dim}_{B}(K) \neq 0$ because both the upper and lower box-counting dimensions are unchanged by taking the closure of the set.

Transformations: If $f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is Lipschitz then

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{B}(f(K)) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{B}(K)
$$

## Properties of the box-counting dimension

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension - Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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Smooth sets: If $K \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a smooth m-dimensional submanifold then $\operatorname{dim}_{B}(K)=m$

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Invariance: If $f: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is bi-Lipschitz then

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## Dimension of self-similar sets

- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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- Recall that a similarity is a transformation $S: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ with the property:

$$
\|S(x)-S(y)\|=c\|x-y\| \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}
$$

for some fixed positive $c$

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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
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K=\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} S_{i}(K)
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
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## Dimension of self-similar sets

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets
- The dimension of $C$
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## Dimension of self-similar sets

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension - Dimension of self-similar sets - The dimension of $C$
- Conclusion
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- The small overlap idea is captured by the open set condition. There should exist a bounded, non-empty, open set $V$ such that

$$
\bigcup_{i=1}^{N} S_{i}(V) \subset V
$$

with the union disjoint.

## The dimension of $C$

- We showed that $C=S_{0}(C) \cup S_{1}(C)$ with

$$
S_{0}(x)=x / 3 \text { and } S_{2}(x)=x / 3+2 / 3
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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set - Representing the middle thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets OThe dimension of $C$ - Conclusion


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- A Simple Digital Channel
- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
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- Dimension of self-similar sets


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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets - The dimension of $C$
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S_{0}(V) \cap S_{1}(V)=\emptyset
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and

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So the open set condition is satisfied.

- Now we must solve

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\sum_{i=1}^{2}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^{s}=1
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets - The dimension of $C$
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A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets - The dimension of $C$
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- Which gives: $\operatorname{dim}_{H}(C)=\operatorname{dim}_{B}(C)=\frac{\log 2}{\log 3}$
- This illustrates a general result that a set with Hausdorff dimension less than unity is totally disconnected.


## Conclusion

A Simple Digital Channel

- Sampling the Output
- Overview
- Cantor's (rather small) set
- Representing the middle
thirds Cantor set
- Cantor's (rather large) set
- Cantor's (perfect) set
- Cantor's (nowhere dense) set
- Summary
- Self-similarity of $C$
- Self-similarity
- Hausdorff measure
- Hausdorff dimension
- Properties of the Hausdorff
dimension
- Box-counting dimension
- Properties of the
box-counting dimension
- Dimension of self-similar sets - The dimension of $C$ - Conclusion

We have probably overdosed on the middle thirds Cantor set.
but in doing so we have completed the first two parts of the plan:

- Some properties of the Cantor set
- Ways to characterise fractals
- Hyperbolic iterated function systems (IFSs)
- Semi-infinite strings of symbols seen as a metric space
- Topological equivalence with the Cantor set
- Non-hyperbolic IFSs
- Digital forcing/controlling of an inverted pendulum

