

Equivalence of sets

$$A \sim B$$

means there is a 1-to-1 function from A onto B . That is there is a bijection between A and B .

Proposition 1.7 A nonempty set A is countable if it is the range of an infinite sequence, that is there is a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ which is onto.

Idea build a bijection one step at a time

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
$f(n)$	1	2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	17	18	$\frac{1}{2}$
$h(m)$	1	2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$		$\frac{1}{4}$			$\frac{2}{3}$	17	18	...	
m	1	2	3	4		5			6	7	8	...	

Either the construction stops because there were only finite many elements in A to begin with or there is always a way to define $h(m+1)$ given $h(1)$, $h(2)$, ..., $h(m)$.

The proof presented in class is difficult to explain on paper, but is exactly the idea from page 22 of the text.

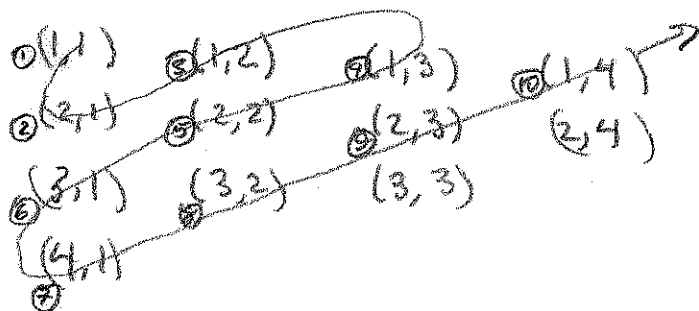
Please read the text to see how this idea is properly explained in a written form.

Homework assignment is made and questions are on the website

<http://fractal.math.unr.edu/~ejolson/181/>

Claim that $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q}$.

First $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$. We need a bijection, $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$. For example:



anything that fills in the top left corner as you count $1, 2, 3, \dots$ will work.

Now define $g: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ by

$$g(p, q) = \begin{cases} \frac{p}{2q} & \text{if } p \text{ even} \\ -\frac{(p-1)}{2q} & \text{if } p \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

to obtain $h: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ onto given by

$$h(n) = g \circ f(n)$$

It follows that

\mathbb{Q} is countable.

Since \mathbb{Q} is obviously countably infinite we have that $\mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Q}$.

For next time read the proof of Theorem 1.1 and try to figure out the construction used in the proof of the Schröder-Bernstein theorem on page 26.

Calculus review;

How to prove the mean value theorem.

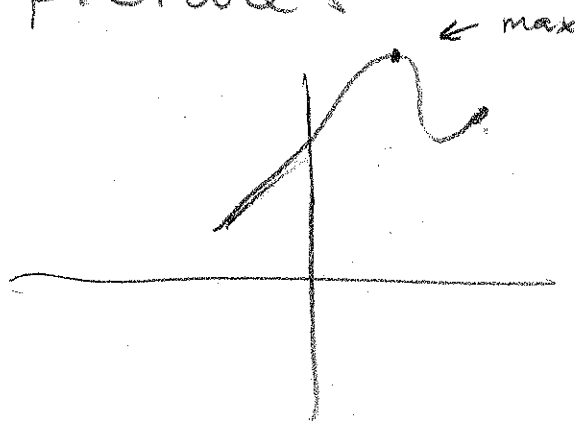
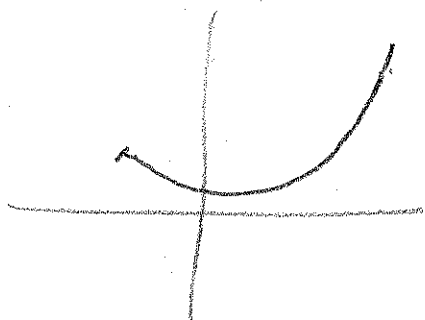
Roll's theorem

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous, differentiable on (a, b) with $f(a) = f(b)$. Then there is $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.

Extreme value theorem

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous, differentiable on (a, b) . Then the maximum of f is either $f(a)$ or $f(b)$ or at some point $c \in (a, b)$ where $f'(c) = 0$.

Proof: Draw pictures



Put pictures into words:

If $f(a)$ or $f(b)$ is maximum, we are done. Otherwise the maximum is at some $c \in (a, b)$. Now $f(c+h) \leq f(c)$ for any h , so $c+h \in [a, b]$. It follows that.

$$\text{Case } h < 0, \quad \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \geq 0$$

$$\text{Case } h > 0 \quad \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \leq 0$$

Therefore

$$f'(c) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \geq 0$$

and

$$f'(c) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \leq 0.$$

It follows that

$$0 \leq f'(c) \leq 0$$

and so $f'(c) = 0$.

Considering $-f$ we have the same result for the minimum.

To prove Roll's theorem note that if the maximum and minimum occur at either a or b then the function must be a horizontal line. In this case $f'(c) = 0$ for every $c \in (a, b)$.

In the case the maximum or minimum occurs at $c \in (a, b)$ then the extreme value theorem states that $f'(c) = 0$.

A

The proof of the mean value theorem may be obtained from Rolle's theorem by a change of coordinates. Try this at home.