

## SPRING 2025 - 18.100B/18.1002

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### Review for the Final

**Definition (Closed subsets):** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. We say that  $C$  is a closed subset of  $X$  if the complement  $X \setminus C$  is open.

Note that  $\emptyset$  (the empty set) and  $X$  are both closed.

**Lemma:** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $r > 0$ , then

$$A_r = \{y \mid d(x, y) > r\}$$

is open. Equivalently,  $\bar{B}_r(x) = \{y \mid d(x, y) \leq r\}$  is closed.

**Theorem:** A subset  $C$  of a metric space  $(X, d)$  is closed if and only if for all convergent sequences  $x_n$  with all  $x_n$  in  $C$  also the limit is in  $C$ .

**Theorem:**

- **Union:** If  $C_\alpha$  is a family of closed subsets, then  $\cap_\alpha C_\alpha$  is also closed.
- **Intersection:** If  $C_1, \dots, C_n$  are closed subsets, then  $C_1 \cup \dots \cup C_n$  is also closed.

Warning: Union of infinitely many closed sets may not be closed!!!

**Definition (Cover, open cover and finite sub-cover):** If  $A$  is a subset of  $X$ , then a cover of  $A$  is a collection of subsets  $U_\alpha$  of  $X$  so that

$$A \subset \cup_\alpha U_\alpha.$$

We say that a  $U_{\alpha_1}, \dots, U_{\alpha_n}$  is a **finite sub-cover** if also  $\{U_{\alpha_i}\}_i$  is a cover.

If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and all the  $U_\alpha$  are **open**, then we say that  $\{U_\alpha\}_\alpha$  is an **open cover**.

**Definition (Compact subset):** If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and  $A$  is a subset, then we say that  $A$  is compact if each open cover has a finite sub-cover.

**Theorem:** (Heine-Borel.)  $[a, b]^n \subset \mathbf{R}^n$  is compact.

**Theorem:** If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and  $A$  a compact subset, then  $A$  is closed and bounded.

**Warning:** The converse is not the case!!! There are closed and bounded subsets of metric spaces that are not compact.

**Theorem:** If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and  $A$  a compact subset, then any closed subset  $C$  contained in  $A$  is also compact.

**Theorem:** If  $(X, d)$  is a metric space and  $A$  a compact subset, then any sequence in  $A$  has a convergent subsequence.

**Definition:** If  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a function, then we say that  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  if the limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

exists. (Note that in this fraction  $x$  is assumed to be  $\neq x_0$ .) When the limit exists, then we say that the function  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and that its derivative at  $x_0$  is the limit. In this case we denote the derivative at  $x_0$  by  $f'(x_0)$ .

**Lemma:** If  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$ , then  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .

**Theorem:** If  $f, g$  are functions on  $\mathbf{R}$  that both are differentiable at  $x_0$ , then

- (Sum rule.)

$$(f + g)'(x_0) = f'(x_0) + g'(x_0).$$

- (Leibniz's rule.)

$$(fg)(x_0) = f'(x_0)g(x_0) + f(x_0)g'(x_0).$$

- (Quotient rule.) If also  $g(x_0) \neq 0$ , then

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x_0) = \frac{f'(x_0)g(x_0) - f(x_0)g'(x_0)}{g^2(x_0)}.$$

**Theorem:** (Chain rule.) If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow [c, d]$  and  $g : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  are functions, where  $f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and  $g$  differentiable at  $y_0 = f(x_0)$ , then the composition  $g \circ f$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and the derivative at  $x_0$  is

$$(g \circ f)'(x_0) = g'(y_0) f'(x_0).$$

**Lemma:** Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a differentiable function and suppose that  $a < x_0 < b$  and that  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum at  $x_0$ , then

$$f'(x_0) = 0.$$

**Theorem:** (Mean value theorem.) Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a differentiable function, then there exists a  $x_0$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

.

**Theorem:** (Cauchy mean value theorem.) Let  $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be differentiable functions, then there exists a  $x_0$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that

$$f'(x_0) [g(b) - g(a)] = g'(x_0) [f(b) - f(a)].$$

In particular, if  $g(b) - g(a) \neq 0$ , then

$$\frac{f'(x_0)}{g'(x_0)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}.$$

**Theorem:** (L'Hopital's rule, version 1.) Let  $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be differentiable functions with  $g(x) \neq 0$  and  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$ , assume that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0.$$

If

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

exists, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

**Theorem:** (L'Hopital's rule, version 2.) Let  $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be differentiable functions with  $g(x) \neq 0$  and  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$ , assume that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty.$$

If

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

exists, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

**Theorem:** (Taylor expansion.) Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a function and  $k$  a positive integer. Assume that  $f, f', f^{(2)}, \dots, f^{(k-1)}$  exists on  $[a, b]$  and are continuous and that  $f^{(k)}$  is defined on  $(a, b)$ , then there exists  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2}(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k-1)}(a)}{(k-1)!}(b-a)^{k-1} \\ + \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{(k)!}(b-a)^k.$$

For and infinitely differentiable function  $f$  on  $\mathbf{R}$  we define the  $(k-1)$  Taylor polynomial at  $a$  by

$$P_{k-1}(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k-1)}(a)}{(k-1)!}(x-a)^{k-1}.$$

## Riemann integrals

**Partition:** Let  $[a, b]$  be an interval. A partition  $\mathcal{P}$  of the interval  $[a, b]$  is a number of sub-divisions  $x_i$  such that

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b.$$

The partition is then the sub-intervals  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . We will set  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ .

**Upper and lower sums:** Suppose now that  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a bounded function and that  $\mathcal{P} = \{x_i\}$  is a partition of the interval  $[a, b]$ . We define upper and lower sums as follows. Set

$$M_i = \sup_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} f,$$

$$m_i = \inf_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} f,$$

and upper  $U(f, \mathcal{P})$  and lower sums  $L(f, \mathcal{P})$  by

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i,$$

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i.$$

**Upper and lower integrals:** Suppose now that  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a bounded function. Define the upper Riemann integral of  $f$  by

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f dx = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(f, \mathcal{P}).$$

Here the infimum is taken over all partitions of  $[a, b]$ . Likewise, we define the lower Riemann integral by

$$\int_a^b f \, dx = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(f, \mathcal{P}).$$

**Riemann integral:** Suppose that  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a bounded function, then we say that  $f$  is Riemann integrable if

$$\overline{\int_a^b f \, dx} = \int_a^b f \, dx.$$

If the function is Riemann integrable, then the Riemann integral is

$$\int_a^b f \, dx = \overline{\int_a^b f \, dx} = \int_a^b f \, dx.$$

The Riemann integrable functions is denoted by  $\mathcal{R}([a, b])$ .

**Theorem:** Any continuous function on  $[a, b]$  is in  $\mathcal{R}([a, b])$ .

**Definition: Uniformly continuous.** Suppose that  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is a function, where  $I$  is an interval. We say that  $f$  is uniformly continuous if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon \text{ if } |x - y| < \delta.$$

Note that being uniformly continuous is stronger than being continuous. It means that for a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , the same  $\delta$  can be used for all  $x$ .

### Basic properties of integrals.

**Theorem:** We have the following basic formulas for integrals:

- (1) If  $f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and  $c \in \mathbf{R}$ , then  $cf \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and

$$\int_a^b (cf) \, dx = c \int_a^b f \, dx.$$

- (2) If  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$ , then  $f + g \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and

$$\int_a^b (f + g) \, dx = \int_a^b f \, dx + \int_a^b g \, dx.$$

- (3) If  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and  $f \leq g$ , then

$$\int_a^b f \, dx \leq \int_a^b g \, dx.$$

(4) If  $f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and  $c \in (a, b)$ , then  $f \in \mathcal{R}([a, c])$  and  $f \in \mathcal{R}([c, b])$  and

$$\int_a^c f \, dx + \int_c^b f \, dx = \int_a^b f \, dx.$$

**Corollary:** Suppose that  $f, |f| \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$ , then

$$\int_a^b f \, dx \leq \int_a^b |f| \, dx.$$

**Fundamental theorem of calculus, version 1:** Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$  and define  $F$  on  $[a, b]$  by

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(s) \, ds.$$

The function  $F$  is differentiable with derivative  $f$ .

**Fundamental theorem of calculus, version 2:** Suppose that  $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is differentiable and that  $F' = f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$ , then

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(s) \, ds.$$

Suppose that  $f$  and  $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  are differentiable functions and their derivatives are continuous, then we define the arclength of the curve

$$s \rightarrow (f(s), g(s))$$

by

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{(f'(s))^2 + (g'(s))^2} \, ds.$$

Improper integrals.

Unbounded interval.

Suppose that  $f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  for all  $b > a$ . If

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

exists, then we say that the improper integral

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) \, dx$$

exists and that

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Unbounded function.

Suppose that  $f \in \mathcal{R}([c, b])$  for all  $c > a$ . If

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow a} \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

exists, then we say that the improper integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

exists and that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow a} \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

**Pointwise convergence:** Suppose that  $f_n$  is a sequence of functions on an interval  $I$ , then we say that  $f_n$  converges pointwise to a function  $f$  if for all  $x$  we have

$$f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x).$$

**Uniform convergence:** Suppose that  $f_n$  is a sequence of functions on an interval  $I$ , then we say that  $f_n$  converges uniformly to a function  $f$  if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N$  such that if  $n \geq N$ , then for all  $x$

$$|f(x) - f_n(x)| < \epsilon.$$

**Lemma 1:** Suppose that  $I$  is an interval and  $f_n$  is a sequence of functions on  $I$  that converges uniformly to a function  $f$ , then  $f_n$  also converges pointwise to  $f$ .

**Lemma [Weierstrass  $M$ -test]:** Suppose that  $I$  is an interval and  $f_n$  is a sequence of functions on  $I$ . Suppose also that  $M_n$  is a sequence of non-negative numbers with

$$|f_n(x)| \leq M_n \text{ for all } x \in I.$$

If the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$$

converges, then the sequence of functions

$$S_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(x)$$

converges uniformly.

**Theorem:** If

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$$

is a power series and  $R$  is its radius of convergence. Then it converges uniformly on any (finite) interval of the form  $[-L, L]$  where  $L < R$ .

**Theorem:** Suppose that  $I$  is an interval and  $f_n$  is a sequence of continuous functions on  $I$ . If  $f_n$  converges uniformly to  $f$ , then  $f$  is also continuous.

**Proposition:** Let  $I$  be an interval  $[a, b]$  and  $f_n, f \in C(I)$ , then  $f_n \rightarrow f$  in the metric space  $(C(I), d)$  if and only if  $f_n$  converges to  $f$  uniformly.

**Corollary:**  $C([a, b])$  is Cauchy complete.

**Theorem:** If  $f_n \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly, then  $f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  and

$$\int_a^b f_n dx \rightarrow \int_a^b f dx.$$

**Theorem:** Suppose that  $f_n$  are differentiable functions on  $[a, b]$  and  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ . If

- $f_n(x_0) \rightarrow c$ ,
- $f'_n \rightarrow g$  uniformly,
- $f'_n$  are continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,

then there exists a differentiable function  $f$  with

- $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly,
- $f'_n \rightarrow f'$  uniformly.

Suppose that  $a_n$  is a sequence and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n,$$

is a power series, the radius of convergence  $R$  is

$$R = \frac{1}{M} \text{ where } M = \limsup |a_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$



**Corollary:** The power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

has the same radius of convergence as the power series

$$\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} a_n x^{n-k}.$$

**Theorem:** Suppose that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n,$$

is a power series with radius of convergence  $R$ , then

$$f^{(k)}(x) = \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} a_n x^{n-k}$$

and

$$\int f(x) dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n-1}}{n} x^n.$$

**Ordinary differential equations:** Suppose that we have the following:

- $f$  be a continuously differentiable function on  $\mathbf{R}$ .
- $g$  be a continuous function on  $\mathbf{R}$ .
- $a$  is a real number.

We are interested in existence and uniqueness of the ODE:

$$\begin{cases} y'(x) &= f(y(x)) + g(x) \\ y(0) &= a. \end{cases}$$

**Picard-Lindelöf theorem:** There exists  $\delta > 0$  such that there is a unique solution to this ODE on  $(-\delta, \delta)$ .

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