

Preparatory course for (Oct. 2020)
M.Sc. Mathematical Physics

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Contents: 7 video lectures
+ 7 question + exercise sessions

- 1) Topological, metric, and normed spaces
 - 2) Continuity, compact sets, connected sets
 - 3) Differential calculus
 - 4) Ordinary differential equations
 - 5) Measure and integration theory
 - 6) Classical mechanics
 - 7) Quantum mechanics
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Lect. 1: Topological, metric, and normed spaces

Convergence:

A sequence $(x_n) = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$ in a set X is a map

$$x: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X, n \mapsto x_n$$

Def.: A sequence (x_n) in \mathbb{R} converges to $x \in \mathbb{R}$, iff

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq N_\varepsilon: |x_n - x| < \varepsilon.$$

(iff for every $\varepsilon > 0$ it holds "eventually" that $|x_n - x| < \varepsilon$)

(x_n) in \mathbb{R}^n : $-||-$: $\|x_n - x\| < \varepsilon$

(x_n) in a metric space: $-||-$: $d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$
 $\Leftrightarrow: x_n \in \mathcal{B}_\varepsilon(x)$

(x_n) in a topol. space: iff for every neighborhood U of x ,
eventually $x_n \in U$.

Def.: Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

A norm $\|\cdot\|$ on V is a map $\|\cdot\|: V \rightarrow \underline{[0, \infty)}$, $x \mapsto \|x\|$

with the properties:

(i) $\|x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$ ✓

(ii) $\forall x \in V, \lambda \in \mathbb{K}: \|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \cdot \|x\|$

(iii) $\forall x, y \in V: \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$

The pair $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ is called a normed space.

Examples: a) On $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ or \mathbb{C}^n the foll. maps are norms:

$$\|x\|_2 := \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2} \quad (\text{euclidean norm})$$

$$\|x\|_\infty := \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\} \quad (\text{maximum norm})$$

$$\|x\|_1 := |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n| \quad (1\text{-norm})$$

or, more generally, for $p \in [1, \infty)$

$$\|x\|_p := \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^p \right)^{1/p} \quad (p\text{-norm})$$

b) Let X a set, $(Y, \|\cdot\|_Y)$ a normed space,

and $V \subset$ vector space over the same field as Y !

$$V := \left\{ f: X \rightarrow Y \mid \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\|_Y < \infty \right\}.$$

Then $\|f\|_\infty := \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\|_Y$

is a norm on V . (Exercise: Show this!)

Solution: • $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\|_Y < \infty$ for all $f \in V$
 $\|f\|_\infty \geq 0$ by definition of V .

• i) $\sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\|_Y = 0$
 ≥ 0

"
 $\sup \{ \|f(x)\|_Y \mid x \in X \}$
 $\in [0, \infty)$

$\Leftrightarrow \|f(x)\|_Y = 0 \quad \forall x \in X$

$\|\cdot\|_Y$ is norm

$\Leftrightarrow f(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in X$

$\Leftrightarrow f = 0 \in V$

(ii) Let $f \in V$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$

$\|\lambda \cdot 0\| = \dots = \|\lambda \cdot 0(x)\|$

$A \subset \mathbb{R}$,

A is bounded \Leftrightarrow

$\exists C \in \mathbb{R} : \forall x \in A \quad |x| \leq C.$

M is an upper bound for A

$\Leftrightarrow \forall x \in A : x \leq M$

$\sup A :=$ least upper bound

Ex: $\sup(0, 1) = 1 \notin (0, 1)$



Ex: $f: (0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $\dots = 0, \dots = \dots$

iii) $\lambda f \in V$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\|\lambda f\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in X} \|\lambda f(x)\|_Y$$

$$\stackrel{\|\cdot\|_Y}{=} \sup_{x \in X} |\lambda| \|f(x)\|_Y$$

$$= |\lambda| \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\|_Y$$

$$= |\lambda| \cdot \|f\|_\infty$$

(iii) Let $f, g \in V$, then

$$\|f + g\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x) + g(x)\|_Y \stackrel{\|\cdot\|_Y \text{ is norm}}{\leq} \sup_{x \in X} (\|f(x)\|_Y + \|g(x)\|_Y)$$

$$\leq \sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\|_Y + \sup_{x \in X} \|g(x)\|_Y = \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty$$

Ex: $f: (0,1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $x \mapsto f(x) = x$

$$\sup_{x \in X} \|f(x)\| = 1$$

$\inf A :=$ largest lower bound

M is called the maximum of $A \subset \mathbb{R}$, iff $M \in A$ and $x \leq M$ for all $x \in A$.

Def.: Let X be a set. A metric d on X is a map

$$d: X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

with the following properties:

(i) $d(x, y) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = y$

(ii) $\forall x, y \in X: d(x, y) = d(y, x)$

(iii) $\forall x, y, z \in X: d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$

The pair (X, d) is called a metric space.

Examples: a) Let $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ be a normed space. Then

$$d: V \times V \rightarrow [0, \infty), (x, y) \mapsto d(x, y) := \underline{\|x - y\|}$$

defines a metric on V .

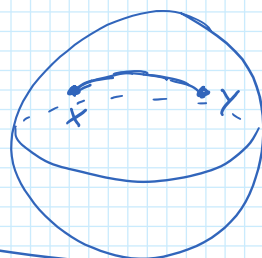
b) Let X be a set. Then the discrete metric on X is

$$d(x, y) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x = y \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

c) The euclidian unit sphere $S^2 := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \|x\|_2 = 1\}$ with the metric

$$d(x, y) := \arccos(\langle x, y \rangle)$$

is a metric space.



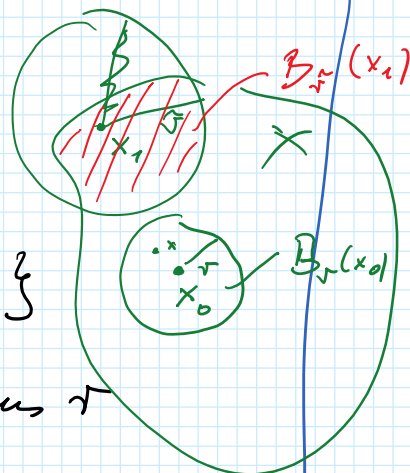
Def.: (Open sets in metric spaces)

Let (X, d) be a metric space.

(a) For $x_0 \in X$ and $r > 0$ the set

$$B_r(x_0) := \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) < r\}$$

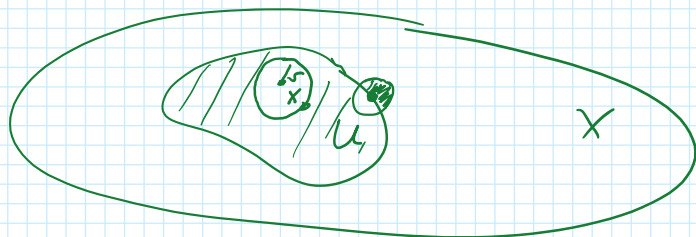
is called the open ball with radius r and center x_0 .



(b) A subset $U \subset X$ is called a neighborhood of $x_0 \in X$, iff U contains an open ball around x_0 , i.e. $\exists r > 0: B_r(x_0) \subset U$.

Then x_0 is called an interior point of U .

(c) A subset $U \subset X$ is called open, iff it contains only interior points, i.e. iff $\forall x \in U \exists r > 0: B_r(x) \subset U$.



Examples: a) Let (X, d) be a metric space.

Then for any $x_0 \in X$ and $r > 0$ the set $B_r(x_0)$ is open. (Ex. 2: Prove this!)

Sol. 2: Let $x \in B_r(x_0)$ and

put $\varepsilon := r - \underbrace{d(x, x_0)}_{< r} > 0$.

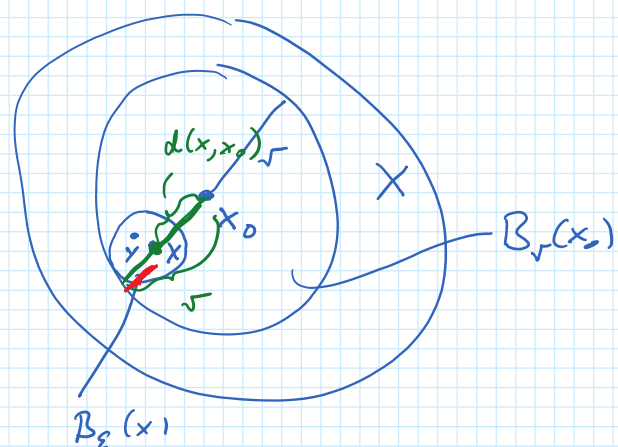
We show that $B_\varepsilon(x) \subset B_r(x_0)$:

Let $y \in B_\varepsilon(x)$ then

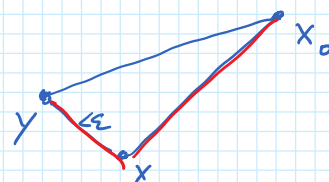
$$\underline{d(y, x_0)} \stackrel{\Delta\text{-ing.}}{\leq} \underline{d(y, x)} + \underline{d(x, x_0)}$$

$$< \varepsilon + d(x, x_0) = \underline{\underline{r}}$$

$\Rightarrow y \in B_r(x_0)$.



$$\varepsilon := r - d(x, x_0)$$



$$\begin{array}{c} \text{---} \left(\text{---} \overset{y}{\bullet} \overset{\varepsilon}{\text{---}} \right) \text{---} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \forall y \in B_r(x) \exists \varepsilon > 0 \\ \text{---} \overset{x-r}{\bullet} \overset{x}{\bullet} \overset{x+r}{\bullet} \text{---} \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} (y-\varepsilon, y+\varepsilon) \subset (x-r, x+r) \\ \text{"} \end{array}$$

b) Let X be equipped with the discrete metric.

Then any subset $U \subset X$ is open: $B_{\frac{1}{2}}(x) = \{x\} \forall x \in X$.

Prop.: Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then

(i) \emptyset and X are open.

(ii) If $U, V \subset X$ are open, then also $U \cup V$ is open.

(iii) If $U_i \subset X$ is open for all $i \in I$, then also

$\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ is open.

Ex. 3: Prove this! ∇

Sol. 3: (i) \emptyset is open by definition; X is open because
 $\forall x \in X, \forall r > 0: B_r(x) \subset X$.

(ii) Let $U, V \subset X$ be open and let $x \in U \cup V$.

Since U is open, $\exists r_1 > 0: B_{r_1}(x) \subset U$

Since V is open, $\exists r_2 > 0: B_{r_2}(x) \subset V$

Let $r := \min\{r_1, r_2\}$. Then

$B_r(x) \subset B_{r_1}(x) \subset U$ and $B_r(x) \subset B_{r_2}(x) \subset V$

$\Rightarrow B_r(x) \subset U \cup V$.

(iii) Let $U_i \subset X, i \in I$, open and $y \in \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$.

Then $\exists i_0 \in I: y \in U_{i_0}$

U_{i_0} open

$\Rightarrow \exists r > 0: B_r(y) \subset U_{i_0} \subset \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$

$\Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i$ is open.

(ii) implies that intersections of finitely many open sets are open. However, this is not true for infinitely many sets: Let $U_n := (-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}) \subset \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Then $\bigcap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U_n = \{0\}$ is not open.

Def.: A subset $A \subset X$ of a metric space is closed, iff its complement $A^c := \{x \in X \mid x \notin A\}$ is open.

Examples: Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$.

Then $[a, b]$, $[a, \infty)$ are closed, but

$[a, b)$ is neither open nor closed.

For any metric space (X, d) the sets \emptyset and X are open and closed.

Def.: Let X be a set. A topology \mathcal{T} on X is a collection $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{P}(X)$ of subsets of X with the following properties:

(i) $\emptyset, X \in \mathcal{T}$

(ii) $U, V \in \mathcal{T} \Rightarrow U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$

(iii) $U_i \in \mathcal{T}$ for all $i \in I \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} U_i \in \mathcal{T}$

The sets $U \in \mathcal{T}$ are called the open sets and

The sets $U \in \mathcal{T}$ are called the open sets and (X, \mathcal{T}) is called a topological space.

$A \subset X$ is closed, iff $A^c \in \mathcal{T}$.

For $U \subset X$ is called a neighbourhood of $x_0 \in X$ (and x_0 an interior point of U), iff $\exists O \in \mathcal{T}$ with $x_0 \in O \subset U$.

Example: According to the above Prop., the open sets in a metric space form a topology.

Def: Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a top. space and $Y \subset X$.

(a) The set $\overset{\circ}{Y} := \bigcup_{\substack{U \in \mathcal{T} \\ U \subset Y}} U$ is called the interior of Y .

(b) The set $\overline{Y} := \bigcap_{\substack{U \in \mathcal{T} \\ U \supset Y^c}} U^c$ is called the closure of Y .

(c) The set $\partial Y := \overline{Y} \setminus \overset{\circ}{Y}$ is called the boundary of Y .

By definition we have

- $\overset{\circ}{Y} \subset Y \subset \overline{Y}$
- $\overset{\circ}{Y}$ is the largest open set contained in Y .
- Y is open $\Leftrightarrow Y = \overset{\circ}{Y}$
- \overline{Y} is the smallest closed set containing Y .

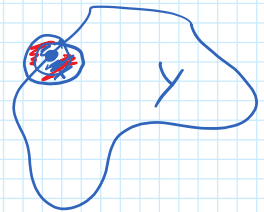
- Y is closed $\Leftrightarrow Y = \overline{Y}$
- $(\overset{\circ}{Y})^c = \overline{Y^c}$ and $(Y^c)^\circ = (\overline{Y})^c$ (de Morgan)

Prop.: Let (X, \mathcal{T}) be a top. space and $Y \subset X$. Then

(a) $\overset{\circ}{Y}$ is the set of interior points of Y .

(b) $x \in \partial Y \Leftrightarrow$ for any neighbourhood U of x
 $U \cap Y \neq \emptyset$ and $U \cap Y^c \neq \emptyset$.

(c) $\overset{\circ}{Y} = Y \setminus \partial Y$ and $\overline{Y} = Y \cup \partial Y$



Example: For $Y = [a, b) \subset \mathbb{R}$ we have

$$\overset{\circ}{Y} = (a, b), \quad \overline{Y} = [a, b], \quad \partial Y = \{a, b\}.$$

For $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$ we have $\overset{\circ}{\mathbb{Q}} = \emptyset, \quad \overline{\mathbb{Q}} = \mathbb{R}, \quad \partial \mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{R}.$

Def.: Let X be a top. space. A sequence (x_n) in X converges to $a \in X$ and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a,$$

(X, d)

$x_n \in B_\varepsilon(a)$

$\Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0: \exists N \in \mathbb{N}: \forall n \geq N$

„ $B_\varepsilon(a)$ “

iff for any neighbourhood U of a there exist $N \in \mathbb{N}$

such that $x_n \in U$ for all $n \geq N$.

Note that in general convergence points are not unique:
 on any set X with the indiscrete topology
 $\mathcal{T} := \{\emptyset, X\}$ any sequence (x_n) in X converges to
 every point in X !

Def.: A topological space (X, \mathcal{T}) is Hausdorff,
 iff $\forall x, y \in X, x \neq y, \exists U, V \in \mathcal{T}: x \in U, y \in V, U \cap V = \emptyset$.



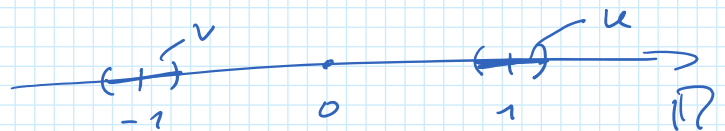
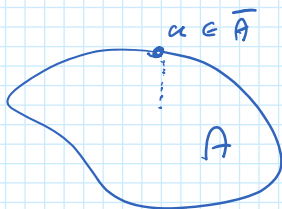
In Hausdorff spaces sequences have at most one limit.
 Metric spaces are Hausdorff: for $x, y \in X, x \neq y$,
 we have $d(x, y) =: r > 0$ and $B_{\frac{r}{2}}(x) \cap B_{\frac{r}{2}}(y) = \emptyset$.

Def.: A point $a \in X$ is called a cluster point
 of a sequence (x_n) if any neighborhood U
 of a contains infinitely many elements of (x_n) .

Ex: (x_n) in $\mathbb{R} : x_n = (-1)^n$

$$x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = (-1, \underline{1}, -1, \underline{1}, -1, \dots)$$

(x_n) does not converge, but has two cluster points, $\{-1, 1\}$.



Prop.: Let X be a metric space and $A \subset X$. Then

$$a \in \overline{A} \Leftrightarrow \exists (x_n) \text{ in } A : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a$$

Note that \Leftarrow holds also in top. spaces.

Def.: A sequence (x_n) in a metric space X is called a Cauchy sequence, iff uniform spaces

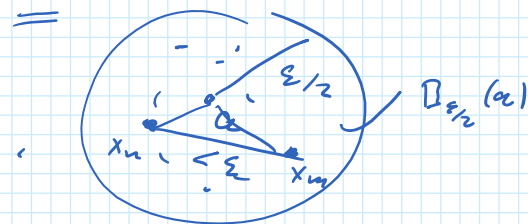
$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n, m \geq N : \underline{d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon}$$

Prop.: Every convergent sequence in a metric space is also Cauchy. Ex. 4: Prove this!

Sol. 4: Let (x_n) in (X, d) and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a$ and $\varepsilon > 0$.

$$d(x_n, x_m) \leq \underbrace{d(x_n, a)}_{< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \forall n \geq N_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}} + \underbrace{d(a, x_m)}_{< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \forall m \geq N_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}} < \varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N_{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}$$

$\Rightarrow (x_n)$ is Cauchy



Def.: A metric space X is called complete,

iff every Cauchy sequence in X converges.

A complete normed space is called a Banach space.

Examples: $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{C}^n$ are Banach spaces.

→ \mathbb{Q} is not complete.

(x_n) in \mathbb{Q} with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$
is Cauchy but not convergent in \mathbb{Q} .

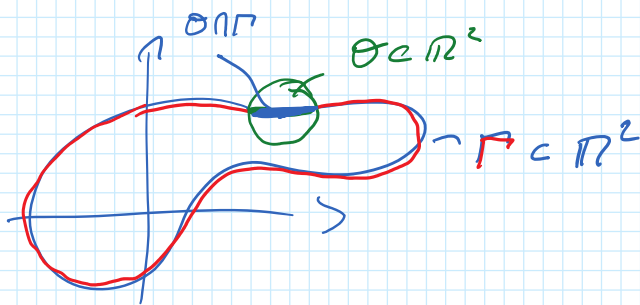
• (X, \mathcal{T}) a topological space and $Y \subset X$ a subset (nonempty)

Then $\mathcal{T}|_Y := \{ \underline{O} \cap Y \mid \underline{O} \in \mathcal{T} \}$ is a topology on Y ,
the subspace or relative topology. The elements $U \in \mathcal{T}|_Y$
are called relative open sets.

Examples: • $X = \mathbb{R}, Y = [0, 1]$. Then $Y \in \mathcal{T}|_Y$, i.e.

Y is relatively open in itself. Also $[0, \frac{1}{2}) \subset Y$

is relat. open, because $[0, \frac{1}{2}) = (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \cap Y$



• (X, d) metric space and $Y \subset X$ a subset.

Then $(Y, d|_Y)$ is a metric space

$$d|_Y: Y \times Y \rightarrow [0, \infty), (y_1, y_2) \mapsto d|_Y(y_1, y_2) := d(y_1, y_2)$$

• $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ normed space and $U \subset V$ a vector subspace.

Then $(U, \|\cdot\||_U)$ is a normed space.