

# Compendium

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## **Sommario**

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Parte I

**Matematica**

# Capitolo 1

## Analisi

### 1.1 Premesse all'analisi

#### 1.1.1 Distanze e Interni

**Definizione 1.1.** Si dice che un insieme  $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  è un **intervallo** se per ogni terna di numeri  $x_1 < x_2 < x_3$  si ha che  $x_1, x_3 \in I \Rightarrow x_2 \in I$

I seguenti sono esempi di diversi tipi di intervalli:

$$[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$$

$$(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a < x < b\}$$

$$[a, +\infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq x\}$$

$$(-\infty, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x < b\}$$

L'intorno di un punto è un insieme all'interno del quale ci si può avvicinare a piacere al punto

**Definizione 1.2.**  $U(x_0)$  intorno di  $x_0$  è un qualsiasi intervallo aperto che contenga  $x_0$

Esempio:  $(3, 7)$  è  $U(4)$ , ovvero un intorno di 4

Per andare a studiare gli interni anche all'infinito introduciamo un'estensione dell'insieme  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\bar{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$$

$$U(+\infty) = (M, +\infty)$$

$$U(-\infty) = (-\infty, M)$$

Un intorno particolare è l'intorno circolare, ovvero l'insieme dei numeri che hanno distanza da un punto minore di una certa quantità. Tali interni sono utili e vastamente utilizzati nello studio dei limiti

**Definizione 1.3.** Dato un punto  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  si dice **intorno circolare** di  $x_0$  di **raggio**  $\delta$  ogni intervallo del tipo  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ , con  $\delta$  un qualsiasi numero positivo

$$I = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 + \delta\} = (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$$

$$x \in I \Leftrightarrow |x - x_0| < \delta$$

Si può parlare anche di intorno destro e sinistro

$$U^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta\} = (x_0, x_0 + \delta)$$

$$U^- = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x_0 - \delta < x < x_0\} = (x_0 - \delta, x_0)$$

**Definizione 1.4.** Sia  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$

- $A$  è **superiormente limitato** se  $\exists k \in \mathbb{R} \mid x \leq k \forall x \in A$
- $A$  è **inferiormente limitato** se  $\exists k \in \mathbb{R} \mid k \leq x \forall x \in A$
- $A$  è **limitato** se è superiormente e inferiormente limitato
- $b$  è **maggiorante** per  $A$  se  $x \leq b \forall x \in A$
- $b$  è **minorante** per  $A$  se  $b \leq x \forall x \in A$
- dei maggioranti il più significativo è il più piccolo detto estremo superiore (**SUP**)
- dei minoranti il più significativo è il più grande detto estremo inferiore (**INF**)
- se il  $SUP \in A$  è detto **massimo**
- se il  $INF \in A$  è detto **minimo**

Il fatto che un numero sia  $SUP$  (o  $INF$ ) di  $A$  significa che l'insieme  $A$  si può avvicinare a piccare al  $SUP$

**Teorema 1.1.** Sia  $A$  un intervallo che ammetta  $SUP$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists a \in A \mid SUP - \epsilon < a \leq SUP$$

*Dimostrazione.* Per assurdo supponiamo che

$$\exists \bar{\epsilon} > 0 \nexists a \in A, SUP - \bar{\epsilon} < a \leq SUP$$

ovvero

$$SUP - \bar{\epsilon} > a \forall a \in A$$

Quindi secondo la definizione 1.4 di maggiorante,  $SUP - \bar{\epsilon}$  è maggiorante di  $A$ . Ma allora  $SUP - \bar{\epsilon} < SUP$ , che però contraddice il fatto che  $SUP$  sia il più piccolo dei maggioranti, secondo la definizione 1.4 di  $SUP$ . Dunque la supposizione fatta per assurdo è falsa. QED

**Definizione 1.5.** Sia  $A \subset \mathbb{R}$

- $x_0 \in A$  è un **punto isolato** se

$$\exists U = U(x_0) \mid U \cap A = \{x_0\}$$

- $x_0 \in A$  è un **punto di accumulazione** se

$$\forall U = U(x_0) \quad U \cap (A \setminus \{x_0\}) \neq \emptyset$$

## 1.2 Limiti

### 1.2.1 Definizione e concetti di base

**Definizione 1.6** (Limite). Sia  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  e  $x_0, L \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall V = V(L) \quad \exists U = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \cap D \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow f(x) \in V$$

*Nota.* Affinchè si possa andare a determinare un limite il punto deve essere un punto di accumulazione

Alcuni esempi di definizioni di limiti:

- $x_0, L$  finiti

$$V = (L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon) \quad U = (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0, \delta = \delta(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

- $x_0, L$  infiniti

$$V = (N, +\infty) \quad U = (M, +\infty)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = \pm\infty \iff \forall N > 0 \quad \exists M > 0, M = M(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, x > M \rightarrow f(x) > N$$

Si può parlare anche di limite **destro** o **sinistro**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^\pm} f(x) = L \iff \forall V = V(L) \quad \exists U = U^\pm(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \cap D \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow f(x) \in V$$

e di limite che tende per **eccesso** o **difetto**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L^\pm \iff \forall V = V^\pm(L) \quad \exists U = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \cap D \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow f(x) \in V$$

Dalla definizione di limite destro e sinistro si può arrivare a una ridefinizione di limite:

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad L, x_0 \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = L_1 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = L_2 \\ L_1 = L_2 \end{cases}$$

**Definizione 1.7.** Sia  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$r : y = k \quad k \in \mathbb{R}$  è **asintoto orizzontale** a  $\pm\infty$  se

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = k$$

$r : x = x_0 \quad x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  è **asintoto verticale** se vale una delle seguenti

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = \pm\infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = \pm\infty$$

**Teorema 1.2** (Unicità del limite). *Sia  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  con  $x_0 \in \bar{\mathbb{R}}$*

$$\exists! L \in \bar{\mathbb{R}} \mid \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$$

*Dimostrazione.* Per assurdo supponiamo che

$$\exists L \neq L' \in \bar{\mathbb{R}} \mid \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \quad \text{e} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L'$$

allora

$$\exists V_1 = V(L), V_2 = V(L') \mid V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$$

Per definizione 1.6 di limite

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \implies \exists U_1 = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U_1 \cap D \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow f(x) \in V_1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L' \implies \exists U_2 = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U_2 \cap D \setminus \{x_0\} \rightarrow f(x) \in V_2$$

Ma allora si ottiene  $U_1 \cap U_2 = U(x_0)$  e  $x_0$  punto di accumulazione, il che implica

$$\exists x^* \in (U_1 \cap U_2) \cap D \setminus \{x_0\} \Rightarrow f(x^*) \in V_1, f(x^*) \in V_2$$

Questo contraddice il fatto che  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ , dunque la supposizione fatta per assurdo è falsa. QED

## 1.2.2 Operazioni

**Teorema 1.3** (Somma di limiti). *Siano  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  e  $g : D' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  due funzioni tali che  $\exists U = U(x_0) \mid U \subset D \cap D'$ . Se  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  e  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L'$  e  $L, L'$  sono finiti, allora*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + L'$$

*Dimostrazione.* Per la definizione 1.6 di limite si ha

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_f > 0, \delta_f = \delta_f(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_f \rightarrow \\ &|f(x) - L| < \epsilon \end{aligned} \tag{1.1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L' &\iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_g > 0, \delta_g = \delta_g(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_g \rightarrow \\ &|g(x) - L'| < \epsilon \end{aligned} \tag{1.2}$$

Valutiamo quindi  $|f(x) + g(x) - (L + L')|$ , per la disuguaglianza triangolare vale

$$|f(x) + g(x) - (L + L')| \leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - L'|$$

Prendendo  $\delta = \min(\delta_f, \delta_g)$  e considerando valori  $x \neq x_0 \mid |x - x_0| < \delta$ , sfruttando le disuguaglianze (1.1), (1.2); si ottiene

$$|f(x) + g(x) - (L + L')| \leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - L'| < \epsilon + \epsilon = 2\epsilon$$

Data l'arbitrarietà di  $\epsilon$  il limite è dimostrato

QED



Discutiamo ora i casi con limiti infiniti

- Un limite finito e l'altro infinito

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \text{ e } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = +\infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = +\infty$$

- Entrambi i limiti infiniti **concordi**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = +\infty \text{ e } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = +\infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = +\infty$$

- Se i due limiti infiniti **discordi**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) + g(x)) = -\infty$$

non è possibile dire nulla a priori della somma dei limiti. Si dice che  $[+\infty - \infty]$  è una **forma indeterminata**

**Teorema 1.4** (Prodotto di limiti). *Siano  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  e  $g : D' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  due funzioni tali che  $\exists U = U(x_0) | U \subset D \cap D'$ . Se  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  e  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L'$  e  $L, L'$  sono finiti, allora*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = L \cdot L'$$

Si ha la forma indeterminata  $[0 \cdot \infty]$

**Teorema 1.5** (Reciproco di limite). *Siano  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  una funzione tale che  $\exists U = U(x_0) | U \subset D \cap D'$ . Se  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  e  $L \neq 0$  finito, allora*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{1}{f(x)} = \frac{1}{L}$$

Discutiamo ora i casi particolari

- Se  $L = 0$  non è possibile calcolare il reciproco perchè la divisione non è definita, ma è dimostrabile che

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = 0^\pm \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{1}{f(x)} = \pm\infty$$

Il che **non significa che**  $\frac{1}{0} = \infty$

- Se  $L = \infty$  non è possibile calcolare il reciproco perchè la divisione non è definita, ma è dimostrabile che

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \infty \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0$$

Il che **non significa che**  $\frac{1}{\infty} = 0$

**Teorema 1.6** (Rapporto di limiti). *Siano  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  e  $g : D' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  due funzioni tali che  $\exists U = U(x_0) | U \subset D \cap D'$ . Se  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  e  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L'$  e  $L, L' \neq 0$  sono finiti, allora*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{L'}$$

Si hanno le forme indeterminate  $\left[\frac{0}{0}\right]$  e  $\left[\frac{\infty}{\infty}\right]$

**Teorema 1.7** (Potenze di limiti). *Siano  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  e  $g : D' \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  due funzioni tali che  $\exists U = U(x_0) \mid U \subset D \cap D'$ . Se  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L > 0$  e  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L'$  e  $L, L'$  sono finiti, allora*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)^{g(x)} = L^{L'}$$

Si hanno le forme indeterminate  $[0^0]$ ,  $[\infty^0]$  e  $[1^\infty]$

### 1.2.3 Teoremi fondamentali

**Teorema 1.8** (Permanenza del segno). *Sia  $f(x)$  una funzione definita su un intervallo  $I$  e  $x_0$  un punto appartenente a  $I$  o un suo estremo.*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) > 0 (< 0) \Rightarrow \exists U = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \cap I \setminus \{x_0\} \quad f(x) > 0 (< 0)$$

*Dimostrazione.* Supponiamo  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L > 0$ . Per la definizione 1.6 di limite si ha

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0, \delta = \delta(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow$$

$$L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon \tag{1.3}$$

Essendo  $L > 0$  è possibile porre  $\epsilon = L$ ; allora la disequazione (1.3) assume la forma  $0 < f(x) < 2L$ . In particolare  $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > 0$  QED

*Nota.* Intorni più larghi di  $f(x)$  possono assumere segno opposto

**Teorema 1.9** (Opposto della permanenza del segno). *Sia  $f(x)$  una funzione definita su un intervallo  $I$  e  $x_0$  un punto appartenente a  $I$  o un suo estremo.*

$$\exists U = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \cap I \setminus \{x_0\} \quad f(x) \geq 0 (\leq 0) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \geq 0 (\leq 0)$$

*Dimostrazione.* Per assurdo supponiamo che  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) < 0$ . Allora per il teorema 1.8 della permanenza del segno si ha che  $\exists U' = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U' \quad f(x) < 0$ . Posto  $U'' = U \cap U'$ , si ha che

$$x \in U'' \subset U \Rightarrow f(x) \geq 0$$

$$x \in U'' \subset U' \Rightarrow f(x) < 0$$

Si giunge quindi a una contraddizione, il che implica che la supposizione fatta per assurdo è falsa. QED

**Teorema 1.10** (Teorema del confronto). *Siano  $f(x), g(x), h(x)$  funzioni definite ciascuna su un intervallo e l'intersezione dei tre intervalli contenga  $U = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \quad f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x)$ . Allora*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} h(x) = L$$

*Dimostrazione.* Per la definizione 1.6 di limite si ha

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_f > 0, \delta_f = \delta_f(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_f \rightarrow$   

$$L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon \quad (1.4)$$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_g > 0, \delta_g = \delta_g(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_g \rightarrow$   

$$L - \epsilon < g(x) < L + \epsilon \quad (1.5)$$

Prendendo  $\delta = \min(\delta_f, \delta_g)$  e considerando valori  $x \neq x_0 \mid |x - x_0| < \delta$ , sfruttando le disuguaglianze (1.4), (1.5); si ottiene

$$L - \epsilon < f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x) < L + \epsilon$$

In particolare  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$ , che corrisponde alla definizione 1.6 di limite; dunque si può affermare che  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} h(x) = L$  QED

#### 1.2.4 Limiti notevoli

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 1$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + x)^{\frac{1}{x}} = e$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log_a(1 + x)}{x} = \log_a e$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \ln a$

## Parte II

# Fisica

## Capitolo 2

# Relatività

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