Compendium

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Sommario

Il seguente documento contiene alcuni appunti di matematica e fisica del corso delle scienze applicate. Il materiale potrebbe essere incompleto o incoretto in alcune parti, esso non è da intendersi come materiale didattico. L'utilizzo è a discrezione del lettore. Si prega di contattare il curatore del documento nel caso si riscontrino errori o incorrettezze nel testo.

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Parte I Matematica

Capitolo 1

Analisi

1.1 Premesse all'analisi

1.1.1 Distanze e Intorni

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:

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

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

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

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

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 intorni 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 intorni 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** δ ogni intervallo del tipo $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$, con δ un qualsiasi numero positivo

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

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 $x \le b \ \forall x \in A$
- $b \in \mathbf{minorante}$ per $A = b \le x \ \forall x \in A$
- 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 picare 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

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

• $x_0 \in A$ 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 $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ e $x_0, L \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$

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

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

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

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

• x_0, L infiniti

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

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = \pm \infty \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \forall N > 0 \quad \exists M > 0, \ M = M(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, x > M \to f(x) > N$$

Si può parlare anche di limite destro o sinistro

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

e di limite che tende per eccesso o difetto

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

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

$$f: D \to \mathbb{R} \qquad L, x_0 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teorema 1.2 (Unicità del limite). Sia $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ $x_0 \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$

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

Dimostrazione. Per assurdo supponiamo che

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

allora

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

Per definizione 1.6 di limite

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

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

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 $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ e $g: D' \to \mathbb{R}$ due funzioni tali che $\exists U = U(x_0)|U \in D \cap D'$. Se $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = L$ e $\lim_{x\to x_0} g(x) = L'$ e L,L' sono finiti, allora

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

Dimostrazione. Per la definizione 1.6 di limite si ha

•
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_f > 0, \ \delta_f = \delta_f(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_f \to |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$
 (1.1)

•
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = L' \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_g > 0, \ \delta_g = \delta_g(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_g \to |g(x) - L'| < \epsilon$$
 (1.2)

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

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

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

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

Data l'arbitrarietà di ϵ il limite è dimostrato

Discutiamo ora i casi con limiti infiniti

• Un limite finito e l'altro infinito $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = L \text{ e } \lim_{x\to x_0} g(x) = +\infty$

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

• Entrambi i limiti infiniti **concordi** $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = +\infty$ e $\lim_{x\to x_0} g(x) = +\infty$

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

• Se i due limiti infiniti discordi

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

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 $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ e $g: D' \to \mathbb{R}$ due funzioni tali che $\exists U = U(x_0)|U \in D \cap D'$. Se $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L$ e $\lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = L'$ e L, L' sono finiti, allora

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

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

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

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

Discutiamo ora i casi particolari

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

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

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

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

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = \infty \implies \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{1}{f(x)} = 0$$

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

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

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

Si hanno le forme indeterminate $\begin{bmatrix} 0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$ e $\begin{bmatrix} \infty\\\infty \end{bmatrix}$

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

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

Si hanno le forme indeterminate $\left[0^{0}\right],\left[\infty^{0}\right]$ e $\left[1^{\infty}\right]$

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.

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

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

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

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

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.

$$\exists U = U(x_0) \mid \forall x \in U \cap I \setminus \{x_0\} \quad f(x) \ge 0 \ (\le 0) \implies \lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) \ge 0 \ (\le 0)$$

Dimostrazione. Per assurdo supponiamo che $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) < 0$. 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

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = L \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \lim_{x \to x_0} h(x) = L$$

Dimostrazione. Per la definizione 1.6 di limite si ha

•
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_f > 0, \ \delta_f = \delta_f(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_f \to L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$$
 (1.4)

•
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = L \iff \forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta_g > 0, \ \delta_g = \delta_g(\epsilon) \mid \forall x, 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta_g \to L - \epsilon < g(x) < L + \epsilon$$
 (1.5)

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

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

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

1.2.4 Limiti notevoli

$$\bullet \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 1$$

 $\begin{array}{l} \textit{Dimostrazione.} \text{ Essendo la funzione } y = \frac{\sin(x)}{x} \text{ pari, } \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0^-} \frac{\sin(x)}{x}. \text{ Scegliamo di calcolare il limite } \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\sin(x)}{x}. \text{ Costruiamo una circonferenza goniometrica e prendiamo } BOC \text{ angolo al centro acuto e situato nel primo quadrante con } x \text{ la sua misura in radianti.} \\ \text{Avendo dunque } 0 < x < \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ e } A \text{ punto di intersezione tra il prolungamento di } OC \text{ e la perpendicolare ad } OB \text{ in } B; \text{ si ha:} \\ \end{array}$

$$-A_{\triangle OBC} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot \sin x$$
$$-A_{\triangle OBC} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot x$$
$$-A_{\triangle OBA} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot \tan x$$

Quindi

 $\sin x < x < \tan x$

Dividendo per $\sin x$ si ottiene

$$1 < \frac{x}{\sin x} < \frac{1}{\cos x}$$

ovvero

$$\cos x < \frac{\sin x}{x} < 1 \tag{1.6}$$

Applichiamo il teorema 1.10 del confronto all'equazione (1.6), avendo f(x) = 1, $g(x) = \cos x$ $e^{h(x)} = \frac{\sin x}{x}$

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} f(x) = 1 \text{ e } \lim_{x \to 0^+} g(x) = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \cos x = 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \to 0^+} h(x) = \lim_{x \to 0^+} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

QED

$$\bullet \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos(x)}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Dimostrazione.

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(1 - \cos x)(1 + \cos x)}{x^2(1 + \cos x)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{x^2(1 + \cos x)} =$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \frac{1}{1 + \cos x} = 1 \frac{1}{1 + 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

QED

• $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{\frac{1}{x}}=e$ Tale limite deriva direttamente della definizione di

$$e := \lim_{n \to \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$$

$$\bullet \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_a(1+x)}{x} = \log_a e$$

Dimostrazione.

$$\log_a e = \log_a \left[\lim_{x \to 0} (1+x)^{\frac{1}{x}} \right] =$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\log_a (1+x)^{\frac{1}{x}} \right] = \lim_{x \to 0} \left[\frac{1}{x} \log_a (1+x) \right] = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_a (1+x)}{x}$$

QED

$$\bullet \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \ln a$$

Dimostrazione. Dalla definizione di logaritmo

$$\log_a(1+x) = t$$
 allora $(1+x) = a^t$

da cui

$$x = a^t - 1$$

Scriviamo allora

$$\log_a e = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_a (1+x)}{x} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{t}{a^t - 1}$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \frac{1}{\log_a e} = \ln a$$

QED

Parte II

Fisica

Capitolo 2

Relatività

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