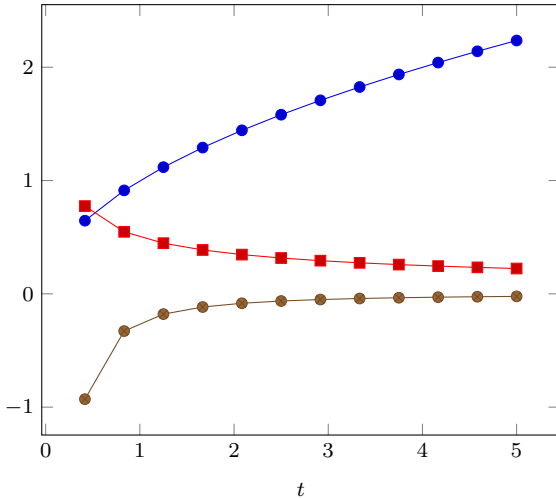


## BASICS OF CALCULUS

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**Figure 1.** Blue circles represent position  $x$  of object over time  $t$ , according to law of motion  $x = \sqrt{t}$ . Red rectangles are velocity  $v$  of object over time  $t$ . Brown circles are acceleration  $v' = -1/4x^{3/2}$ .

### 1. DIFFERENTIATION

Calculus is the study of change. It is divided into two categories: Differential Calculus and Integral Calculus which are connected by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Consider the law of motion given for some object as shown in figure 1:

$$x = \sqrt{t} \quad (1)$$

Velocity  $v$  which represents speed, or rate of change of  $x$  is a derivative of  $x$  over  $t$ :

$$\tan \alpha = v = \frac{dx}{dt} = x' = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad (2)$$

Note that  $\tan \alpha$  provides geometric interpretation of a derivative as the angle of inclination of the tangent line to the curve at the point with abscissa. In order to determine velocity as derivative of  $x$ , one can *differentiate* the given law of motion:

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}x = (\sqrt{t})' = (t^{1/2})' = \frac{1}{2}t^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} \quad (3)$$

Thus, one can compute  $v$  for any  $t$  using this result. The rules of differentiation and table of derivatives are available from various sources, e.g. §6 of Chapter II “Analysis” in *Mathematics, its content, methods, and meaning* by Aleksandrov, Kolmogorov and Lavrent’ev. Note that second derivative  $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = x'' = v'$  is acceleration.

### 2. INTEGRATION

On the other hand, the differential equation itself can come from empirical observations of the law of motion, astronomical observations for example:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} \quad (4)$$

If one wishes to obtain position  $x$ , he can solve the differential equation 4 by *integrating*, i.e. taking “inverse” action of differentiation:

$$x = \int \frac{dx}{dt} dt \quad (5)$$

Area of graph ( $vt$ ) provides position  $x$ . Because of the definition of integral as area (e.g.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$  provides an area bounded by  $y = x^2$  and abscissa within  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ), position is the limit of the sum of instantaneous velocities  $v(\xi_i)$ , multiplied by time intervals  $\Delta t_i$ , as those intervals approach zero:

$$x = \int v(t)dt = \lim_{\max \Delta t_i \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n v(\xi_i)\Delta t_i \quad (6)$$

Solving indefinite integral:

$$x = \int \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} dt = \frac{1}{2} \int t^{-1/2} dt = \frac{1}{2} 2t^{0.5} + C = \sqrt{t} + C \quad (7)$$

Where  $C$  is constant that depends on initial conditions. The rules of integration are usually provided in sources similar to the one referenced above. With initial conditions  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $t_0 = 0$ :  $x_0 = \sqrt{t_0} + C$ , thus  $C = x_0 - \sqrt{t_0} = 0$ , so  $x = \sqrt{t}$ , which returns us back to equation 1.

### 3. FORMULA OF NEWTON AND LEIBNITZ

The following Newton–Leibnitz equality is the corollary of the fundamental theorem of calculus that links definite integration of a function and its primitive (antiderivative):

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a) = F(x) \Big|_a^b \quad (8)$$

With primitive given as  $F'(x) = f(x)$ . For example, with primitive for  $x^2$  being  $x^3/3$ :

$$\int_0^a x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_0^a = \frac{a^3}{3} - \frac{0}{3} = \frac{a^3}{3} \quad (9)$$

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