- 1. 1
- 2. 2
- 3. 3
- 4. 4
- 5. 5
- 6. 6

- 7. Define  $L(x) = \int_1^x \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t}$  for  $\forall x > 0$ . Show:
  - L(xy) = L(x) + L(y)
  - $L'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$
  - $L_{inv}(x) = E(x)$ , where we define  $E(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$ .

For the first part we want to show:

$$\int_{1}^{yx} \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t} = \int_{1}^{x} \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t} + \int_{1}^{y} \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t}.$$

Beginning from the left hand side let  $t = x\alpha$ .

$$\therefore \int_{t=1}^{t=xy} \implies \int_{\alpha=\frac{1}{x}}^{\alpha=y}$$

$$: dt = x d\alpha$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{t} = \frac{1}{x\alpha}$$

Now splitting this integral via T4.9 gives:

$$\int_{t=1}^{t=yx} \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t} = \int_{\alpha = \frac{1}{x}}^{\alpha = y} \frac{\mathrm{d}\alpha}{\alpha}$$

$$= \int_{\alpha = 1}^{\alpha = y} \frac{\mathrm{d}\alpha}{\alpha} + \int_{\alpha = \frac{1}{x}}^{\alpha = 1} \frac{\mathrm{d}\alpha}{\alpha}$$

$$= \int_{\alpha = 1}^{\alpha = y} \frac{\mathrm{d}\alpha}{\alpha} + \int_{\beta = 1}^{\beta = x} \frac{\mathrm{d}\beta}{\beta}$$

where we set  $\alpha = \frac{1}{x}\beta$  in the second integral.

$$\therefore L(xy) = L(x) + L(y)$$

Using the fundamental theorem of calculus:

$$L(x) = \int_{1}^{x} \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t} \implies \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} L(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

since  $\forall t > 0, \frac{1}{t}$  is continuous.

For the final part let's first define our functions:

$$E: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$L: \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$$

where  $\mathbb{R}^+ = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, \dots\}$  represents the positive reals. Then define:

$$E(x) = z$$

for  $x, z \in \mathbb{R}$  and:

$$L(y) = x$$

for  $y \in \mathbb{R}^+$ .

For these two functions to be inverses of each other we must show that:

$$E(L(y)) = y$$

and

$$L(E(x)) = x.$$

Consider

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y}E(L(y)) = E(L(y))\frac{1}{y}.$$

Rearranging this and taking integrals:

$$\int_{1}^{E(L(y))} \frac{1}{E(L(y))} dE(L(y)) = \int_{1}^{y} \frac{1}{y} dy.$$

This gives:

$$\Big[L(E(L(y)))\Big]_{E(L(y))=1}^{E(L(y))=E(L(y))} = \big[L(y)\big]_1^y$$

or that:

$$L(E(L(y))) = L(y).$$

$$\therefore E(L(y)) = y$$

This is fine since  $y \in \mathbb{R}^+ \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Similarly consider the following:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}L(E(x)) = \frac{1}{E(x)}E(x) = 1.$$

Here L(E(x)) is defined as  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}; E(x) > 0$ .

Integrating our expression as an indefinite integral:

$$L(E(x)) = x + k$$

and we find that k = 0 by setting x = 0.

$$\therefore L(E(x)) = x$$

8. Let  $g:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be continuous, and that  $g\geq 0$  for  $\forall x\in [a,b].$  Then let:

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(x) \mathrm{d}x = 0.$$

Show that  $\forall x \in [a, b]$  we have g(x) = 0.

Firstly because  $g \ge 0$  splitting the integral using T4.9:

$$\int_a^b g(x)\mathrm{d}x = \int_a^c g(x)\mathrm{d}x + \int_c^b g(x)\mathrm{d}x = 0$$

implies that  $\forall c \in [a, b]$ :

$$\int_{a}^{c} g(x) \mathrm{d}x = 0$$

as areas of positive functions are always positive.

Since g(x) is continuous we can use the fundamental theorem of calculus.

Let:

$$G(x) = \int_{a}^{x} g(t)dt = 0$$

for  $\forall x \in [a, b]$  as shown above. We then have that:

$$g(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}G(x) = 0$$

for  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ .