The Natural Logarithm

Math 1220 (Spring 2003)

Here's a new function:

$$\ln(x) := \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$

with domain $(0, \infty)$. Let's compare this function with some others:

 $\int_{1}^{x} 1dt = x - 1 \text{ (since } t \text{ is an antiderivative of 1)}$ $\int_{1}^{x} tdt = \frac{x^{2}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \text{ (since } \frac{t^{2}}{2} \text{ is an antiderivative of } t)$

in fact, whenever $n \neq -1$, then:

$$\int_{1}^{x} t^{n} dt = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n+1}$$

Notice, however, that if n < 0 then this only has domain equal to $\mathbf{R} - \{0\}$. So we can think of ln(x) as a sort of analogue of this function.

OK. So now let's remember the 2nd fundamental theorem of calculus:

$$D_x(ln(x)) = D_x(\int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt) = \frac{1}{x}$$

Or, in other words, ln(x) is an anti-derivative of $\frac{1}{t}$. This is a mysterious function, but miraculously we can see that it has some interesting properties just coming from the definition! For example, from the chain rule:

$$D_x(ln(u)) = \frac{1}{u}D_x(u)$$

whenever u = u(x) is a function of x. So for example:

$$D_x(ln(x^2)) = \frac{1}{x^2}(2x) = \frac{2}{x}$$

And, as a really interesting example:

$$D_x(ln(-x)) = \frac{1}{-x}(-1) = \frac{1}{x}$$

so that ln(-x) is another anti-derivative of $\frac{1}{x}$, but this one is only valid when x < 0, so putting them both together, we see that the indefinite integral:

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(|x|) + c$$

So what does this have to do with the logarithm you've seen in pre-calc? Properties of the Natural Logarithm:

- (a) ln(1) = 0; ln(x) < 0 for 0 < x < 1 and ln(x) > 0 for 1 < x.
- (b) ln(ab) = ln(a) + ln(b) for positive numbers a and b.
- (c) $ln(\frac{a}{b}) = ln(a) ln(b)$ for positive numbers a and b.
- (d) $ln(a^r) = rln(a)$ for rational numbers r and positive numbers a.

Proof: (i) comes from the fact that $\frac{1}{t} > 0$ when t > 0.:

(ii)
$$\int_{1}^{1} \frac{1}{t} dt = 0, \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt = \text{area under the graph if } x > 1$$
$$\int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt = -\int_{x}^{1} \frac{1}{t} dt = -\text{area under the graph if } x < 1$$

$$D_x(\ln(ax)) = \frac{1}{ax}a = \frac{1}{x}$$

so ln(ax) is an antiderivative of $\frac{1}{x}$. Since any two anti-derivatives of the same function differ by a constant:

$$ln(ax) = ln(x) + C$$

for some constant C. We can evaluate C by letting x = 1. This gives:

$$ln(a) = C$$

and thus:

$$ln(ax) = ln(a) + ln(x)$$

which is exactly what we wanted! (Set x = b)

(iii) Notice first that:

$$0 = ln(1) = ln(b \cdot \frac{1}{b}) = ln(\frac{1}{b}) + ln(b)$$

so $ln(\frac{1}{b}) = -ln(b)$. Now use (ii):

$$ln(\frac{a}{b}) = ln(a \cdot \frac{1}{b}) = ln(a) + ln(\frac{1}{b}) = ln(a) - ln(b)$$

(iv) Let's use the same trick we used in (ii). We have:

$$D_x(ln(x^r)) = \frac{1}{x^r}(rx^{r-1}) = \frac{r}{x}$$

but we also have:

$$D_x(rln(x)) = \frac{r}{x}$$

so that:

$$ln(x^r) = rln(x) + C$$

and what is C? Well, if we let x = 1, then we see that C = 0(!) So

$$ln(x^r) = rln(x)$$

for every x, which is what we want!

Final Remark: Since the natural log function satisfies:

$$D_x(ln(x)) = \frac{1}{x} > 0$$

and

$$D_x^2(\ln(x)) = -\frac{1}{x^2} < 0$$

we see that it is everywhere increasing and concave down. Also:

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \ln(x) = \infty$$

and

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \ln(x) = -\infty$$

so the range of ln(x) is $(-\infty, \infty)$.