

### POWERS AND LOGARITHMS

### Danuta Przeworska-Rolewicz

Dedicated to Professor Ivan H. Dimovski on the occasion of his 70th birthday

### Abstract

There are applied power mappings in algebras with logarithms induced by a given linear operator D in order to study particular properties of powers of logarithms. Main results of this paper will be concerned with the case when an algebra under consideration is commutative and has a unit and the operator D satisfies the Leibniz condition, i.e. D(xy) = xDy + yDx for  $x, y \in \text{dom } D$ . Note that in the Number Theory there are well-known several formulae expressed by means of some combinations of powers of logarithmic and antilogarithmic mappings or powers of logarithms and antilogarithms (cf. for instance, the survey of Schinzel S[1].

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# 1. Algebras with logarithms

We recall some notions and properties which will be used in the sequel.

Let X be a linear space over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  of scalars of the characteristic zero. Recall that L(X) is the set of all linear operators with domains and ranges in X and  $L_0(X) = \{A \in L(X) : \text{dom } A = X\}$ .

If X is an algebra over  $\mathbb{F}$  with a  $D \in L(X)$  such that  $x, y \in \text{dom } D$  implies  $xy, yx \in \text{dom } D$ , then we shall write  $D \in \mathbf{A}(X)$ . The set of all *commutative* algebras belonging to  $\mathbf{A}(X)$  will be denoted by  $\mathbf{A}(X)$ . If  $D \in \mathbf{A}(X)$ , then

$$f_D(x,y) = D(xy) - c_D[xDy + (Dx)y]$$
 for  $x, y \in \text{dom } D$ ,

where  $c_D$  is a scalar dependent on D only. Clearly,  $f_D$  is a bilinear (i.e. linear in each variable) form which is symmetric when X is commutative, i.e. when  $D \in A(X)$ . This form is called a non-Leibniz component. Non-Leibniz components have been introduced for right invertible operators  $D \in A(X)$  (cf. PR[1]). If  $D \in A(X)$ , then the product rule in X can be written as follows:

$$D(xy) = c_D[xDy + (Dx)y] + f_D(x,y)$$
 for  $x, y \in \text{dom } D$ .

If  $D \in A(X)$  is right invertible, then the algebra X is said to be a D-algebra.

We shall consider in  $\mathbf{A}(X)$  the following sets:

 $\bullet$  the set of all *multiplicative* mappings (not necessarily linear) with domains and ranges in X:

$$M(X) = \{A : \text{dom } A \subset X, \ A(xy) = A(x)A(y) \text{ for } x, y \in \text{dom } A\};$$

- the set I(X) of all invertible elements belonging to X;
- the set R(X) of all right invertible operators belonging to L(X);
- the set  $\mathcal{R}_D = \{R \in L_0(X) : DR = I\}$  of all right inverses to a  $D \in R(X)$ ;
- the set  $\mathcal{F}_D = \{ F \in L_0(X) : F^2 = F, FX = \ker D \text{ and } \exists_{R \in \mathcal{R}_D} FR = 0 \}$  of all initial operators for a  $D \in R(X)$ ;
  - the set  $\Lambda(X)$  of all left invertible operators belonging to L(X);
  - the set  $\mathcal{I}(X)$  of all invertible operators belonging to L(X).

Clearly, if  $\ker D \neq \{0\}$ , then the operator D is right invertible, but not invertible. Here the invertibility of an operator  $A \in L(X)$  means that the equation Ax = y has a unique solution for every  $y \in X$ . Elements of the kernel of a  $D \in R(X)$  are said to be constants. If  $D \in \mathcal{I}(X)$  then  $\mathcal{F}_D = \{0\}$  and  $\mathcal{R}_D = \{D^{-1}\}$ . We also have dom  $D = RX \oplus \ker D$  independently of the choice of an  $\mathcal{R}_D$  (cf. PR[1]).

It is well-known that F is an initial operator for a  $D \in R(X)$  if and only if there is an  $R \in \mathcal{R}_D$  such that F = I - RD on dom D. Moreover, if F' is

any projection onto ker D then F' is an initial operator for D corresponding to the right inverse R' = R - F'R independently of the choice of an  $R \in \mathcal{R}_D$  (cf. PR[1]).

Suppose that  $D \in \mathbf{A}(X)$ . Let  $\Omega_r, \Omega_l : \text{dom } D \longrightarrow 2^{\text{dom } D}$  be multifunctions defined as follows:

$$\Omega_r u = \{ x \in \text{dom } D : Du = uDx \}, \quad \Omega_l u = \{ x \in \text{dom } D : Du = (Dx)u \}$$
(1.1)

for  $u \in \text{dom } D$ . The equations

$$Du = uDx$$
 for  $(u, x) \in \operatorname{graph} \Omega_r$ ,  $Du = (Dx)u$  for  $(u, x) \in \operatorname{graph} \Omega_l$  (1.2)

are said to be the right and left basic equations, respectively. Clearly,

$$\Omega_r^{-1}x = \{u \in \text{dom } D : Du = uDx\}, \quad \Omega_l^{-1}x = \{u \in \text{dom } D : Du = (Dx)u\}$$
(1.3)

for  $x \in \text{dom } D$ . The multifunctions  $\Omega_r, \Omega_l$  are well-defined and dom  $\Omega_r \cap \text{dom } \Omega_l \supset \ker D$ .

Suppose that  $(u_r, x_r) \in \text{graph } \Omega_l$ ,  $(u_l, x_l) \in \text{graph } \Omega_r$ ,  $L_r$ ,  $L_l$  are selectors of  $\Omega_r$ ,  $\Omega_l$ , respectively, and  $E_r$ ,  $E_l$  are selectors of  $\Omega_r^{-1}$ ,  $\Omega_l^{-1}$ , respectively. By definitions,  $L_r u_r \in \text{dom } \Omega_r^{-1}$ ,  $E_r x_r \in \text{dom } \Omega_r$ ,  $L_l u_l \in \text{dom } \Omega_l^{-1}$ ,  $E_l x_l \in \text{dom } \Omega_l$  and the following equations are satisfied:

$$Du_r = u_r DL_r u_r, \quad DE_r x_r = (E_r x_r) Dx_r;$$

$$Du_{l} = (DL_{l}u_{l})u_{l}, \quad DE_{l}x_{l} = (Dx_{l})(E_{l}x_{l}).$$

Any invertible selector  $L_r$  of  $\Omega_r$  is said to be a right logarithmic mapping and its inverse  $E_r = L_r^{-1}$  is said to be a right antilogarithmic mapping. If  $(u_r, x_r) \in \operatorname{graph} \Omega_r$  and  $L_r$  is an invertible selector of  $\Omega_r$ , then the element  $L_r u_r$  is said to be a right logarithm of  $u_r$  and  $E_r x_r$  is said to be a right antilogarithm of  $x_r$ . By  $G[\Omega_r]$  we denote the set of all pairs  $(L_r, E_r)$ , where  $L_r$  is an invertible selector of  $\Omega_r$  and  $E_r = L_r^{-1}$ . Respectively, any invertible selector  $L_l$  of  $\Omega_l$  is said to be a left logarithmic mapping and its inverse  $E_l = L_l^{-1}$  is said to be a left antilogarithmic mapping. If  $(u_l, x_l) \in \operatorname{graph} \Omega_l$  and  $L_l$  is an invertible selector of  $\Omega_l$ , then the element  $L_l u$  is said to be a left logarithm of  $u_l$  and  $E_l x_l$  is said to be a left antilogarithm of  $x_l$ . By  $G[\Omega_l]$  we denote the set of all pairs  $(L_l, E_l)$ , where  $L_l$  is an invertible selector of  $\Omega_l$  and  $L_l = L_l^{-1}$ .

If  $D \in A(X)$  then  $\Omega_r = \Omega_l$  and we write  $\Omega_r = \Omega$  and  $L_r = L_l = L$ ,  $E_r = E_l = E$ ,  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ . Selectors L, E of  $\Omega$  are said to be logarithmic and antilogarithmic mappings, respectively. For any  $(u, x) \in G[\Omega]$  elements Lu, Ex are said to be logarithm of u and antilogarithm of x, respectively. The multifunction  $\Omega$  has been examined in PR[2].

Clearly, by definition, for all  $(L_r, E_r) \in G[\Omega_r]$ ,  $(u_r, x_r) \in \text{graph } \Omega_r$ ,  $(L_l, E_l) \in G[\Omega_l]$ ,  $(u_l, x_l) \in \text{graph } \Omega_l$  we have

$$E_r L_r u_r = u_r, \ L_r E_r x_r = x_r; \quad E_l L_l u_l = u_l, \ L_l E_l x_l = x_l;$$
 (1.4)

$$DE_r x_r = (E_r x_r) Dx_r, \quad Du_r = u_r DL_r u_r; \tag{1.5}$$

$$DE_lx_l = (Dx_l)(E_lx_l), \quad Du_l = (DL_lu_l)u_l.$$

A right (left) logarithm of zero is not defined. If  $(L_r, E_r) \in G[\Omega_r]$ ,  $(L_l, E_l) \in G[\Omega_l]$ , then  $L_r(\ker D \setminus \{0\}) \subset \ker D$ ,  $E_r(\ker D) \subset \ker D$ ,  $L_l(\ker D \setminus \{0\}) \subset \ker D$ ,  $E_l(\ker D) \subset \ker D$ . In particular,  $E_r(0)$ ,  $E_l(0) \in \ker D$ .

If  $D \in R(X)$ , then logarithms and antilogarithms are uniquely determined up to a constant.

If  $D \in \mathbf{A}(X)$  and if D satisfies the Leibniz condition: D(xy) = xDy + (Dx)y for  $x, y \in \text{dom } D$ , then X is said to be a Leibniz algebra.

Let  $D \in A(X)$ . A logarithmic mapping L is said to be of the exponential type if L(uv) = Lu + Lv for  $u, v \in \text{dom } \Omega$ . If L is of the exponential type, then E(x + y) = (Ex)(Ey) for  $x, y \in \text{dom } \Omega$ . We have proved that a logarithmic mapping L is of the exponential type **if and only if** X is a commutative Leibniz algebra (cf. PR[2]). In commutative Leibniz algebras with a right invertible operator D  $u \in \text{dom } \Omega$  **if and only if**  $u \in I(X)$  (cf. PR[2]). The Leibniz condition is also a necessary and sufficient condition for the Trigonometric Identity to be satisfied.

By  $\mathbf{Lg}(D)$  ( $\mathbf{Lg}_r(D)$ ,  $\mathbf{Lg}_l(D)$ ) we denote the class of these algebras with unit  $e \in \text{dom } \Omega$  for which  $D \in R(X)$  and there exist invertible selectors of  $\Omega$  ( $\Omega_r$ ,  $\Omega_l$ , respectively), i.e. there exist (L, E)  $\in G[\Omega]$  (( $L_r, E_r$ )  $\in G[\Omega_r]$ , ( $L_l, E_l$ )  $\in G[\Omega_l]$ , respectively).

By  $\mathbf{Lg}_{\#}(D)$  we denote the class of these commutative algebras with a left invertible D for which there exist invertible selectors of  $\Omega$ , i.e. there exists  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ . Clearly, if D is left invertible then  $\ker D = \{0\}$ . Thus the multifunction  $\Omega$  is single-valued and we may write:  $\Omega = L$ . On the other hand, if  $\ker D = \{0\}$ , then either X is not a Leibniz algebra or X has no unit (cf.  $\operatorname{PR}[2]$ ).

Suppose that either  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$  and  $D \in \mathbf{A}(X)$  with unit e is a complete linear metric space. Write  $x^0 = e$  and

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \quad \text{for } x \in X$$
 (1.6)

whenever this series is convergent. The function  $e^x$  is said to be an exponential function. Observe that here we write e for the number

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$$

in order to distinguish between this number and the unit e of the algebra X.

If  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  with unit  $e \in \text{dom } \Omega^{-1}$  is a complete linear metric space then we write

$$\mathcal{E}_D(X) = \{ x \in \text{dom } \Omega^{-1} : \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \text{ is convergent} \}.$$
 (1.7)

By definition,  $e^{x+y} = e^x e^y = e^y e^x$  and  $e^0 = e$ . The same definition can be used for  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}_{\#}(D)$ .

X is said to be a complete m-pseudoconvex algebra, if it is an algebra and a complete locally pseudoconvex space with the topology induced by a sequence  $\{\|\cdot\|_n\}$  of submultiplicative  $p_n$ -homogeneous F-norms, i.e. such pseudonorms that

$$||xy||_n \le ||x||_n ||y||_n$$
 for all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

## 2. Powers

We begin with the following

DEFINITION 2.1. Let  $X \in \mathbf{Lg_r}(D) \cap \mathbf{Lg_l}(D)$ . Write for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ :

$$E_{r,\lambda}u = E_r(\lambda L_r u)$$
 if  $(L_r, E_r) \in G[\Omega_r], \ u \in \text{dom } \Omega_r,$  (2.1)

$$E_{l,\lambda}u = E_l(\lambda L_l u)$$
 if  $(L_l, E_l) \in G[\Omega_l], u \in \text{dom } \Omega_l$ .

If  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$ , then we write

$$E_{\lambda}u = E(\lambda Lu)$$
 if  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega], u \in \text{dom } \Omega.$  (2.1')

The mappings  $E_{r,\lambda}$ ,  $E_{l,\lambda}$  and  $E_{\lambda}$  are said to be of the power type with exponent  $\lambda$  or, if it does not lead to any misunderstanding, shortly, power mappings.

Note 2.1. Without any additional assumptions, just by definitions, left and right logarithms and antilogarithms of elements qe, where e is the unit of X and  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$ , are well-defined (provided that  $c_D \neq 0$ ). In a standard way we obtain extensions of left and right logarithms and antilogarithms to  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$  in Leibniz algebras (cf. for details PR[2], also PR[3]).

We recall without proofs (which can be found either in PR[2] or in PR[3]) the following properties of powers. For the sake of brevity, we shall consider only the commutative case. We get

PROPOSITION 2.1. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$ ,  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$  and the mappings  $E_{\lambda}$  are defined by Formulae (2.1'). Then for all  $\lambda$ ,  $\mu \in \mathbb{F}$  we have  $E_{\lambda}(\text{dom }\Omega) \subset \text{dom }\Omega$ ,  $LE_{\lambda} = \lambda L$  and  $E_{\lambda}E_{\mu} = E_{\lambda\mu}$ , i.e. these mappings are multiplicative functions of the parameter  $\lambda$ .

THEOREM 2.1. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(\mathbf{D})$  is a Leibniz algebra and  $(L, E) \in G_{[}\Omega ]$ . Then for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $u \in I(X) \cap \text{dom } D$   $E_{\lambda}u^{-1} = (E_{\lambda}u)^{-1}$ . If  $D \in R(X)$  then  $E_{\lambda} \in M(X)$ .

PROPOSITION 2.2. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  is a Leibniz algebra and  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ . Then for all  $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $u \in \text{dom } \Omega$ 

$$(E_{\lambda}u)(E_{\mu}u) = E_{\lambda+\mu}u; \quad E_{\lambda}u, \ E_{-\lambda}u \in I(X) \quad \text{and} \quad (E_{\lambda}u)^{-1} = E_{-\lambda}u.$$

Proposition 2.2 does not hold in the noncommutative case (cf. PR[2]).

PROPOSITION 2.3. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  and  $(L, E) \in G_{R,1}[\Omega]$  for an  $R \in \mathcal{R}_D^{-1}$ . If  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $u, v \in \text{dom } \Omega$ ,  $E_{\lambda}u$ ,  $E_{\lambda}v \in I(X)$ , then there is a  $z \in \text{ker } D$  such that

$$(E_{\lambda}u)(E_{\lambda}v) = E\{c_D\lambda Lv + R[c_D\lambda(E_{\lambda}v)^{-1}u^{-1}(Du)(E_{\lambda}v) + (E_{\lambda}v)^{-1}(E_{\lambda}u)f_D(E_{\lambda}u, E_{\lambda}v)] + z.$$

COROLLARY 2.1. Suppose that all assumptions of Proposition 2.3 are satisfied and  $c_D = 0$ . Then the mappings  $E_{\lambda}$  are not defined for  $\lambda \neq 1$ . If  $\lambda = 1$  then  $E_1 = I|_{\text{dom }\Omega}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Let F be an initial operator for a  $D \in R(X)$  corresponding to an  $R \in \mathcal{R}_D$ . We denote by  $G_{R,1}[\Omega]$  the set of these selectors of  $\Omega$  for which FLu = 0 for all  $u \in \text{dom } D$  (cf. PR[2])

Corollary 2.1 implies that for multiplicative D the mappings  $E_{\lambda}$  are not defined (cf. Note 2.1).

Clearly, we can extend Definition 2.1 to left invertible operators. We get

PROPOSITION 2.4. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}_{\#}(D)$ ,  $(L, E) \in G[L]$  and the mapping  $E_{\lambda}$  is defined by (2.1'). Let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ . Then  $E_{\lambda}(\text{dom }L) \subset \text{dom }L$  and  $LE_{\lambda} = \lambda L$  (cf. Proposition 2.1).

PROPOSITION 2.5. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}_{\#}(D)$  and  $(L, E) \in G[L]$ . Let  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ . Then  $E_{\lambda} \in M(X)$  and  $DE_{\lambda}u = \lambda(E_{\lambda-1}u)Du$  for  $u \in \text{dom } L$  (cf. Proposition 2.2).

In general, we have the following

PROPOSITION 2.6. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}_{\#}(D)$  and  $(L, E) \in G[L]$ . If  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  and  $u, v \in \text{dom } L$ ,  $E_{\lambda}u$ ,  $E_{\lambda}v \in I(X)$ , then

$$(E_{\lambda}u)(E_{\lambda}v)=E\{c_{D}\lambda(Lu+Lv)+S[(E_{\lambda}u)^{-1}(E_{\lambda}v)^{-1}f_{D}(E_{\lambda}u,E_{\lambda}v)]\}\ (S\in\mathcal{L}_{D}).$$
(cf. Proposition 2.3).

COROLLARY 2.2. Suppose that all assumptions of Proposition 2.6 are satisfied and  $c_D=0$ . Then the mapping  $E_{\lambda}$  is not defined for  $\lambda \neq 1$ . If  $\lambda=1$ , then  $E_1=I|_{\text{dom }\Omega}$  (cf. Corollary 2.1).

DEFINITION 2.2. Suppose that either  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ , X is a complete m-pseudoconvex Leibniz algebra with unit e, either  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  or  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}_{\#}(D)$ ,  $e \in \text{dom } \Omega^{-1}$  and  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$  (Recall that for  $D \in \Lambda(X)$  we have  $\Omega = L$ ). Write

$$\mathcal{E}'_D(X) = \{ u \in \text{dom } L : \lambda L u \in \mathcal{E}_D(X) \text{ for } (L, E) \in G[\Omega], \ \lambda \in \mathbb{F} \}$$
 (2.3)

(cf. Formula (1.6)) and

$$u^{\lambda} = e^{\lambda L u} \quad \text{for } u \in \mathcal{E}'_D(X), \ \lambda \in \mathbb{F}.$$
 (2.4)

The function  $u^{\lambda}$  is said to be a power function.

PROPOSITION 2.7. Suppose that either  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ ,  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  is a Leibniz complete m-pseudoconvex algebra with unit  $e \in \mathrm{dom} \ \Omega^{-1}$ ,  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$  and D is closed. Then for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ :

(i) if  $u \in \mathcal{E}'_D(X)$ ,  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ , then  $e^{\lambda L u} \in \text{dom } \Omega$ ,  $e^{\lambda L u} = E_{\lambda} u = u^{\lambda}$  and  $Lu^{\lambda} = \lambda Lu$ ;

(ii) if  $u \in I(X) \cap \mathcal{E}'_D(X)$  then

$$Du^{\lambda} = \lambda u^{\lambda - 1} Du; \tag{2.5}$$

(iii) in particular, if  $\lambda = n \in \mathbb{N}$  then

$$u^{\lambda} = u^n = \underbrace{u \cdot \dots \cdot u}_{n-times}.$$

If we restrict ourselves to commutative algebras with right invertible operators, then Definition 2.2 can be generalized in the following manner.

DEFINITION 2.3. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  and  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ . Write

$$\Upsilon(\Omega) = \{(x,y) : x \in \text{dom } \Omega, \ yLx \in \text{dom } \Omega^{-1}\}\$$

and

$$x^y = E(yLx)$$
 whenever  $(x, y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$ .

By definition,  $Lx^y = yLx$ . Indeed,  $Lx^y = LE(yLx) = yLx$ . Let  $u = x^y$  for  $(x,y) \in \Upsilon$  and let  $y \in I(X)$ . Then

$$x = ELx = E(y^{-1}Lx^y) = E(y^{-1}Lu) = u^{y^{-1}}.$$

Clearly,  $x^y$  is a generalization of power functions introduced by Definition 2.2 for scalar exponents, so that we call  $x^y$  also a power function.

Observe that by definition,  $x^e = x$  and  $x^{-e} = x^{-1}$ , since  $x^e = E(eLx) = ELx = x$  and  $x^{-e} = E(-eLx) = E(-Lx) = x^{-1}$ . Moreover, if  $u = x^y$  for  $(x, y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and  $y \in I(X)$ , then

$$x = ELx = E(y^{-1}Lx^y) = E(y^{-1}Lu) = u^{y^{-1}}.$$

Definition 2.3 will be very useful in order to establish the relationship between the number e and the unit e of an algebra under consideration.

THEOREM 2.2. Suppose that  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  is a Leibniz algebra with unit e and  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ . Then the power function  $x^y$  has the following properties:

(i) if 
$$(x, a), (x, b) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$$
, then  $a + b \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and  $x^a x^b = x^{a+b}$ ;

- (ii) if  $(x, a), (y, a) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$ , then  $(xy, a) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and  $x^a y^a = (xy)^a$ ;
- (iii) if  $(x,y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  then  $x^y \in \text{dom } D$  and  $Dx^y = x^y[(Dy)Lx + yx^{-1}Dx]$ , in particular, if  $x \in \ker D$  then  $Dx^y = x^y(Dy)Lx$ , if  $y \in \ker D$  then  $Dx^y = yx^{y-e}Dx$ ;
- (iv) if  $(x, y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and  $x, y \in \ker D$ , then  $x^y \in \ker D$ , in other words: a constant to a constant power is again a constant;
  - (v) if  $(x, y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and a = Ey, then  $x^{La} = a^{Lx}$ ;
  - (vi) if  $(x, y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and a = Lx, then  $(Ea)^y = y^{Ea}$ ;
  - (vii)  $e^{\lambda e} = e$  whenever  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ ;
  - (viii) if  $x \in \text{dom } \Omega$ , then  $x^0 = e$  (cf. (1.7));
  - (ix) if  $(x, u), (x^u, v) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$ , then  $(x, uv) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  and  $(x^u)^v = x^{uv}$ ;
  - $(x) \ if \ (x,y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega), \ then \ (x,-y) \in \Upsilon(\Omega), \ x^y \in I(X) \ and \ (x^y)^{-1} = x^{-y};$
- (xi) if the logarithm L is natural (i.e. if  $L(p_n e) = e \ln p_n$ , where  $p_n$  is the n-th prime  $(n \in \mathbb{N})$ , then  $(ee)^x = Ex$  whenever  $x \in \text{dom } \Omega^{-1}$ ;
- (xii) if X is an m-pseudoconvex D-algebra and  $\lambda e \in \mathcal{E}_D(X)$  for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$   $(\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R} \text{ or } \mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C})$ , then  $e^{\lambda e} = e^{\lambda}e$ , in particular,  $e^e = ee$ .

Clearly, when X = C[0, T] and  $D = \frac{d}{dt}$ , the introduced power mappings coincide with the classical power functions.

Definition 2.4. Suppose that all assumptions of Definition 2.3 are satisfied. Write

$$I_n(Y) = \{ x \in Y : \exists_{y \in I(Y)} \ y^n = x \} \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N}, \ Y \subset X \}.$$
 (2.6)

Elements  $y \in Y$  will be denoted by  $y = x^{1/n}$  and called *nth roots* of x.

By definition, if  $y = x^{1/n}$ , then

$$x = e^{L}x$$
,  $y = e^{1/n}Lx = e^{Lx^{1/n}}$  whenever  $x \in \mathcal{E}_D(X)$ .

# 3. Powers of logarithmic mappings

In the sequel we shall admit for the sake of brevity the following condition:

[L]  $X \in \mathbf{Lg}(D)$  is a Leibniz D-algebra with unit e, (i.e. a commutative Leibniz algebra with unit and with  $D \in R(X)$ ).

Condition [L] implies

$$(Lu)^m = E(mL^2u)$$
 for  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega], (u, x) \in \text{graph } \Omega \ (m \in \mathbb{N}_0).$  (3.1)

Indeed, 
$$(Lu)^m = EL(Lu)^m = E[mL(Lu)] = E(mL^2u)$$
.

DEFINITION 3.1. Suppose that Condition [L] holds,  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ ,  $(u, x) \in \operatorname{graph} \Omega$ , x = Lu, u = Lx. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be arbitrarily fixed. Write:

$$\Lambda_n u = \prod_{j=0}^n L^j u \quad \text{for} \quad L^j u \in \text{dom } \Omega \quad (j=1,...,n).$$
 (3.2)

Proposition 3.1. Suppose that all assumptions of Definition 3.1 are satisfied. Then:

$$DL^{n}u = (L^{n}u)DL^{n+1}u \qquad (n \in \mathbb{N}_{0}). \tag{3.3}$$

P r o o f. By definition, Du = uDLu = uDx. The same definition implies that for w = Lu we have  $DLu = Dw = wDLw = (Lu)DL^2u$ . Hence  $Du = uDLu = u(Lu)DL^2u$ . Suppose Formula (3.3) is true for an arbitrarily fixed  $(n \in \mathbb{N})$ . Then, by the same reasons,  $DL^{n+1}u = (L^{n+1}u)DL^{n+2}u$ , i.e. (3.2) holds for n+1.

PROPOSITION 3.2. Suppose that all assumptions of Definition 3.1 are satisfied. Then:

$$Du = \left(\prod_{j=0}^{n-1} L^j u\right) DL^n u \qquad (n \in \mathbb{N}_0). \tag{3.4}$$

Proof. By induction.

Definition 3.1 and Formula (3.3) immediately imply

COROLLARY 3.1. Suppose that all assumptions of Definition 3.1 are satisfied. Then:

$$Du = (\Lambda_{n-1}u)DL^n u \qquad (n \in \mathbb{N}). \tag{3.5}$$

DEFINITION 3.2. Suppose that all assumptions of Definition 3.1 are satisfied. Let  $k_j \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a_j \in \text{dom } \Omega$  for  $j = 0, ..., n \ (n \in \mathbb{N})$ . Write:

$$\Lambda_n^{k_0,...,k_n}(a_0,...,a_n)u = \prod_{j=0}^n a_j (L^j u)^{k_j}$$
(3.5)

and for  $a_0 = ... = a_n = e$ 

$$\Lambda_n^{k_0, \dots, k_n} u = \prod_{j=0}^n (L^j u)^{k_j}.$$
 (3.6)

Clearly,

$$\Lambda_n^{k_0, \dots, k_n} u = \Lambda_n u \quad \text{for } k_0 = k_1 = \dots = k_{n+1} = 1,$$
 (3.7)

where  $\Lambda_n u$  is defined by Formula (3.2).

Theorem 3.1. Suppose that all assumptions of Definition 3.2 are satisfied. Then:

$$\left[\Lambda_n^{k_0,\dots,k_n}(a_0,\dots,a_n)u\right]^m = E(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} La_j)E(\sum_{j=0}^n k_j L^{j+1}u) \quad (m \in \mathbb{N}_0). \quad (3.8)$$

P r o o f. By our assumption, X is a Leibniz algebra. Thus the logarithmic mapping L under consideration is of exponential type, i.e. L(uv) = Lu + Lv for  $u, v \in \text{dom } D$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be fixed and let m = 1. We have

$$L\Lambda_n^{k_1,...,k_n}(a_1,...,a_n)u = L\prod_{j=0}^n a_j(L^j u)^{k_j}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{n} L[a_j(L^j u)^{k_j}] = \sum_{j=0}^{n} La_j + \sum_{j=0}^{n} k_j L^{j+1},$$

which implies the required Formula (3.8) for  $E = L^{-1}$ . Since X is a Leibniz algebra, L is of the exponential type. Thus  $E = L^{-1}$  has the properties: E(x+y) = (Ex)(Ey) and  $E(mx) = (Ex)^m$  for  $x, y \in \text{dom } \Omega^{-1}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Hence Theorem 3.1 and Formula 3.1 together imply the required formula (3.8).

In particular, we have

$$(\Lambda_n u)^m = E(m \sum_{j=1}^{n+1} L^j u) \qquad (m, n \in \mathbb{N}_0).$$
 (3.9)

It should be mentioned that the already obtained results have some connections with the Number Theory, then also with applications in the cryptography (cf. Schinzel S[1]). There are also some other connections.

# 4. Functional equations for logarithms, antilogarithms and powers

Recall the classical results.

**Example 4.1.** (cf. Kuczma K[1]). Suppose that  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $f \in C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ . Then all solutions of the functional equations

- f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y) are x = ct,  $(c \in \mathbb{R})$ ,
- f(xy) = f(x) + f(y) are  $x = c \log_a t$ ,  $(a \in \mathbb{R} \setminus 0, c \in \mathbb{R})$ ,
- f(x+y) = f(x)f(y) are  $x = ce^{at}$ ,  $(a, c \in \mathbb{R})$ ,
- f(xy) = f(x)f(y) are  $x = ct^a$ ,  $(a, c \in \mathbb{R})$ .

THEOREM 4.1. Suppose that Condition [L] holds,  $(L, E) \in G[\Omega]$ , (u, x),  $(v, y) \in \text{graph } \Omega$ , i.e. x = Lu, u = Lx, y = Lv, v = Ey. Let  $f \in \mathcal{I}(X)$ : dom  $\Omega \to \text{dom } \Omega$ .

- (i) If f = L, then L of the exponential type: L(uv) = Lu + Lv.
- (ii) If f = E, then E(x + y) = (Ex)(Ey).
- (iii) If f is multiplicative: f(xy) = f(x)(f(y)), then solutions of this functional equation are power elements  $x^a = E(aLx)$ , where  $(x, a) \in \Upsilon(\Omega)$  (cf. Definition 2.3.
  - (iv) If f is multiplicative, then

$$L'(uv) = L'u + L'v$$
, where  $L' = Lf$ , (4.12)

i.e. L' is of the exponential type.

(v) If f is additive, then

$$L''(uv) = L''u + L''v$$
, where  $L'' = fL$ , (4.13)

i.e. L" is of the exponential type.

(vi) If f is additive, then

$$L'''(uv) = L'''u + L'''v$$
, where  $L''' = fLf$ , (4.14)

i.e. L''' is also additive.

 ${\bf P}$ r o o f. (i) and (ii) are consequences of the Leibniz condition (cf.  ${\bf PR}[2]).$ 

- (iii) follows from Theorem 2.2(ii).
- (iv) Since f is multiplicative, by (i) we have L'(uv) = Lf(uv)= L[f(u)f(v)] = Lf(u) + Lf(v) = L'(u) + L'(v).
- (v) Since f is additive, by (i) we find L''(uv) = fL(uv) = f(Lu + Lv) = fLu + fLv = L''u + L''v.
- (vi) Since f is additive, again by (i) (as in the proof of (iv)), L'''(uv) = fLf(uv) = f(Lfu + Lfv) = L'''u + L'''v.

It is easy to verify the following

COROLLARY 4.1. Suppose that all assumptions of Theorem 4.1 are satisfied. Let  $h = f^{-1}$ .

- (i) If f = L, then h = E.
- (ii) If f = E, then h = L.
- (iii) If f is multiplicative, then h is also multiplicative.
- (iv) If f is multiplicative, then  $hE = (Lf)^{-1}$ , hE(x+y) = (hEx)(hEy) and the last equation has solutions of the form  $h^{-1}Ex = fEx$ .
- (v) If f is additive, then  $Eh = (fL)^{-1}$ , Eh(x+y) = (Ehx)(Ehy) and the last equation has solutions of the form  $Eh^{-1}x = Efx$ .
  - (vi) If f is additive, then hEh is also additive.

Similar results can be obtained in Leibniz algebras with left invertible operators.

**Example 4.2.** (cf. DP[1]) Let X be a complex Banach space. Denote by B(X) the set of all bounded operators mapping X into itself. A strongly continuous family of operators  $\{W(t)\}_{t\geq 0}\subseteq B(X)$  is a C-regularized semigroup if W(0)=C and W(t)W(s)=W(t+s)C for all  $s,t\geq 0$ . This family is nondegenerate, if W(t)x=0 implies x=0. A C-regularized semigroup is nondegenerate if and only if C is injective. An operator A generates a nondegenerate C-regularized semigroup  $\{W(t)\}_{t\geq 0}$  if

$$Bx = C^{-1} \left[ \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} W(t) x \big|_{t=0} \right]$$

with the maximal domain.

If there is a nondegenerate C-regularized semigroup  $\{W(t)\}_{t\geq 0}$  such that  $A=C^{-1}W(1)$ , then its generator is, by definition,  $\log Ax\equiv Bx$ .

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Institute of Mathematics
Polish Academy of Sciences
Śniadeckich 8, 00-956 Warszawa 10
P.O.Box 21, POLAND

e-mail: rolewicz@impan.gov.pl