

$= 1$ and $v =$

2 , whereby a positive b has two square roots) ; in this case the principal root is defined to be the positive one .

Thus we have $(\sqrt[3]{27})^{1/3}$

$= \sqrt[3]{3}$ and $(\sqrt[3]{27})^{2/3} =$

9 . The number 4 has two $3/2$ th roots , namely 8 and -8 ; however , by convention $4^{3/2}$ denotes the principal root , which is 8 . Since there is no real number x such that x^2

$= -1$, the definition of $b^{u/v}$ when b is negative and v is even must use the imaginary unit i , as described more fully in the section § Powers of complex numbers .

Care needs to be taken when applying the power identities with negative n th roots . For instance , $\sqrt[3]{27} =$

$(\sqrt[3]{27})^{((2/3) \sqrt[3]{3/2})}$

$= ((\sqrt[3]{27})^{2/3})^{3/2} =$

$9^{3/2} = 27$ is clearly wrong . The problem here occurs in taking the positive square root rather than the negative one at the last step , but in general the same sorts of problems occur as described for complex numbers in the section § Failure of power and logarithm identities .

$= =$ Real exponents $= =$

The identities and properties shown above for integer exponents are true for positive real numbers with non -integer exponents as well . However the identity

$\langle \text{formula} \rangle$

cannot be extended consistently to cases where b is a negative real number (see § Real exponents with negative bases) . The failure of this identity is the basis for the problems with complex number powers detailed under § Failure of power and logarithm identities .

Exponentiation to real powers of positive real numbers can be defined either by extending the rational powers to reals by continuity , or more usually as given in § Powers via logarithms below .

$= =$ Limits of rational exponents $= =$

Since any irrational number can be expressed as the limit of a sequence of rational numbers , exponentiation of a positive real number b with an arbitrary real exponent x can be defined by continuity with the rule

$\langle \text{formula} \rangle$

where the limit as r gets close to x is taken only over rational values of r . This limit only exists for positive b . The (ϵ , δ) -definition of limit is used , this involves showing that for any desired accuracy of the result b^x one can choose a sufficiently small interval around x so all the rational powers in the interval are within the desired accuracy .

For example , if x

$= \pi$, the nonterminating decimal representation $\pi =$

$3.14159 \dots$ can be used (based on strict monotonicity of the rational power) to obtain the intervals bounded by rational powers

$\langle \text{formula} \rangle$, $\langle \text{formula} \rangle$, $\langle \text{formula} \rangle$, $\langle \text{formula} \rangle$, $\langle \text{formula} \rangle$, \dots

The bounded intervals converge to a unique real number , denoted by $\langle \text{formula} \rangle$. This technique can be used to obtain the power of a positive real number b for any irrational exponent . The function $f_b (x) = b^x$ is thus defined for any real number x .

$= =$ The exponential function $= =$

The important mathematical constant e , sometimes called Euler 's number , is approximately equal to 2.718 and is the base of the natural logarithm . Although exponentiation of e could , in principle , be treated the same as exponentiation of any other real number , such exponentials turn out to have particularly elegant and useful properties . Among other things , these properties allow

exponentials of e to be generalized in a natural way to other types of exponents , such as complex numbers or even matrices , while coinciding with the familiar meaning of exponentiation with rational exponents .

As a consequence , the notation e^x usually denotes a generalized exponentiation definition called the exponential function , $\exp (x)$, which can be defined in many equivalent ways , for example by :

<formula>

Among other properties , \exp satisfies the exponential identity

<formula>

The exponential function is defined for all integer , fractional , real , and complex values of x . In fact , the matrix exponential is well @-@ defined for square matrices (in which case this exponential identity only holds when x and y commute) , and is useful for solving systems of linear differential equations .

Since $\exp (1)$ is equal to e and $\exp (x)$ satisfies this exponential identity , it immediately follows that $\exp (x)$ coincides with the repeated @-@ multiplication definition of e^x for integer x , and it also follows that rational powers denote (positive) roots as usual , so $\exp (x)$ coincides with the e^x definitions in the previous section for all real x by continuity .

== Powers via logarithms ==

The natural logarithm $\ln (x)$ is the inverse of the exponential function e^x . It is defined for $b > 0$, and satisfies

<formula>

If b^x is to preserve the logarithm and exponent rules , then one must have

<formula>

for each real number x .

This can be used as an alternative definition of the real number power b^x and agrees with the definition given above using rational exponents and continuity . The definition of exponentiation using logarithms is more common in the context of complex numbers , as discussed below .

== Real exponents with negative bases ==